

The

CLEAN HOUSE

Vol. 27

No. 6

A JOURNAL OF THE
JUNIOR and SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

The Clearing House

A journal for modern junior and senior high schools

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Editorial and General Office: 207 Fourth Avenue, New York 3, N.Y.

Subscription Offices: 450 Ahnaip Street, Menasha, Wis., and 203 Lexington Ave., Sweet Springs, Mo.

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NOTICE TO WRITERS

We welcome contributions from our readers. In every issue we publish teachers' and administrators' articles reporting improvements, experiments, and successes as achieved in their schools. Many of our readers have accomplished things in classrooms and in school systems that should be known in thousands of other high schools.

Our preferred length for articles is 1,500 to

2,500 words. We also welcome items reporting good but minor ideas in 50 to 600 words. In addition to fact articles (which need not be dull or prosy) we invite articles of controversy, satire, etc., on secondary-education subjects. Typing should be double-spaced. Keep carbon copy and send us the original.

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How We (*finally*) Got a NEW HIGH SCHOOL

By

T. A. SHAHEEN

A SCHOOL-SUPPLY salesman once said, "Whenever I see a new school going up, I wonder what the superintendent has gone through to get that school built." He has probably gone through a lot, judging from the experiences that led to the new high school in Terryville, Conn., the main population center of the Town of Plymouth.

Except in the minds of a few diehard taxpayers, there had been no question for many years of the need for a new high school for the Town of Plymouth. The Plymouth board of education and three successive superintendents had campaigned with varying degrees of persistence for a new school since 1938. The State Board of Education, probably further back than 1938, had pointed out the deficiencies in the present building. As recently as 1948 the High School Evaluation Committee, established by the State Department of Education, stated that the only recommendation for the present structure was that "it was a place where children could keep warm."

Groups of citizens interested in the education of children had arisen from time to time to press for a new high school. Not until the formation of the two parent-teacher associations, a speakers' bureau, and a citizens' group was the building of a new high school assured. The ultimate success of the building program was due to the

combined efforts of these groups plus the vision and persistence of a strong board of education.

The old Terryville High School was a building primarily geared to the traditional type of education. It had eight academic classrooms, including an outmoded science laboratory and an inadequate library. There was no gymnasium, no assembly hall, no shops for industrial arts, no homemaking area, no music or art room.

The Town of Plymouth had last built a school building in 1928, and had resisted all attempts to replace the antiquated high school. True, a high-school building committee had been appointed, but many citizens felt it was composed of individuals who had little or no desire to build a new school. It was not until public pressure became tremendously vocal that the building committee showed much indication of completing the task it had been assigned.

This article deals only with some of the procedures that were used to obtain the new school—procedures which may be of interest and value to other communities faced with similar problems.

First, the board of education affirmed its desire to inform the people of the town as completely as possible on school matters. Board-of-education meetings were thrown open to the public, and the superintendent

EDITOR'S NOTE

This is the story of the campaign strategy that won a new, modern high-school building for the Town of Plymouth, in Connecticut, to replace an antiquated building whose only virtue was that it could still keep snow and rain off the students. There usually is stiff local opposition to spending money for education. So Mr. Shaheen's account of the victorious tactics may be of interest not only to readers who want a new school building, but others as well—say, teachers who want better salaries. The author is superintendent of schools of the Town of Plymouth, at Terryville, Conn.

was granted permission to prepare news releases. A continuous series of news releases appeared to acquaint the public with the need for a new school. The releases averaged at least one a week, and at the height of the campaign they appeared three and four times a week.

There was additional newspaper publicity in the form of "letters to the editors," as many local citizens used the information presented to them. Some bitter critics of the schools were revealed, but it was highly encouraging to see how quickly a critical letter was followed by one or more letters from strong school supporters. Many a friend came to the fore to press for the new high school. By the time of the town meetings we well knew who our opponents were, and we were prepared for them.

Early in our campaign we prepared a four-page illustrated pamphlet. The cover carried two pictures, one of the present school, bulging with children; the other of a modern new plant which the town could look forward to having. The second page held five illustrations of the new facilities that would be available in a modern high school. A graphical illustration of school population growth appeared on page three. The cost of the new school on a yearly, monthly, and weekly basis was the

main feature of page four. That this pamphlet was significant in the campaign was proved many times. The ice-cream soda which symbolized the weekly cost to the average taxpayer became both the talking point of the school's supporters and an object of ridicule for the opponents of the school.

We also organized a novel speakers' bureau early in the campaign. Thirty-four people volunteered to bring information about the need for a new school to any group that would listen. The speakers' bureau functioned by sending teams of four people each to meetings of local organizations. A team was composed of a school-board member, a teacher, a parent, and a high-school pupil. It is safe to say that at least one thousand people in the community were reached directly or indirectly by the speakers' bureau. Within one period of six days, four different teams of the speakers' bureau appeared before four hundred people. The value of this method can be readily proved by this quotation from the letter of one organization to the school board chairman: "... many of our members who up to now did not realize how badly we need a new school, were fully informed through these speeches . . . it is most certain that all of our one hundred eight members will support your worthy campaign."

The campaign did not underestimate the power of the vocal minority who would certainly provide the opposition. Say what you will about the town meeting as a form of true democracy, yet it is evident that through the town meeting a small minority may easily usurp the power of the community. This small minority is usually fortified with two or three clever orators with the ability to play on the emotions of the taxpayers and to confuse the thinking of the majority.

Convinced that our cause was right, and that our arguments were sound, we held a series of small group meetings preparatory

to each town meeting. At these meetings we would anticipate the arguments and procedures of the vocal minority, and select respected and able people in the community to refute the arguments and to present more reliable information. Town-meeting procedures and parliamentary rules of order were carefully studied. Legal opinions were obtained as needed.

These small groups served as the nucleus for a larger organization of school supporters, who were derisively called by our opponents "the faithful fifty." The "faithful fifty" met to draw up a petition for a final town meeting. At this time the March of Time film on the Arlington, Va., school system and the School Service Institute's film, "The Third Chair," were shown. Impressed by the films and the ensuing discussion, the "faithful fifty" drew up the clinching town meeting petition and organized a campaign which reached at least fifteen hundred voters.

These and many other procedures are responsible for the new high school. As we look at the modern school we remember the countless hours spent by the superintendent and some board members in approaching leading citizens, business men, and industrialists in the community to get from them a statement of their stand on the school situation. It was gratifying to find that most of the people approached were in favor of a good school in spite of

the fact that the opposition had claimed these people would oppose the construction of a new high-school building.

We also recall the radio broadcast over station WBIS in Bristol. The school building chairman, the board of education chairman, two parent-teacher representatives, the local attorney, and the superintendent all participated in a round-table presentation of the school problem.

We will never forget the long-drawn-out battles over the school site and the need for a separate auditorium, both battles which were lost. Never can we forget the insults aimed during the town meetings at the architect, the site-planner, the superintendent.

Yet we shall ever remember the countless good people who quietly through the long eighteen months worked for the new school. Their votes and encouragement are responsible for it. Though the new high school does not completely solve the problems of the secondary-school pupils, it offers more than many of its backers had expected.

There may be towns somewhere where schools are built without need for such thorough planning and battling; but for our town and for many towns like ours, the school-supply salesman had if anything underestimated the trials of the superintendent and the supporters of good education. All of us indeed go through much to get a new school built.



Lopsided School Publicity

A steady flow of news notes on class picnics, parents' dinners, school club activities, and the like, without reference to the educational functioning of the school, may lead elements of the community to think of a local school as simply a "recreation spot."

Are you, or your school, guilty? Does your newspaper publicity play up the social, athletic, and organization activity of the school to the negligence of curriculum, methodology, instructional materials, and educational values? Does your school keep a

scrapbook of its newspaper publicity and analyze its coverage by categories? When was the last time an article appeared on some phase of instruction in your classroom?

In selecting news for publication, do we ignore the findings of numerous studies, such as that of Belmont Farley, which show that parents are most interested in curriculum, instruction, and instructional materials and least interested in athletics and school social and organizational news?—THOMAS E. ROBINSON in *New Jersey Educational Review*.

Teachers Find GOLD in Them Thar Contests

By
J. E. LOGAN

FOR GETTING a lot for a little—or something for *almost* nothing—nothing can rival that intriguing test of skill, the commercial contest with fabulous prizes for the top winners and hundreds of smaller awards for the lesser skilled.

Teachers are “naturals” for winning both national and local contests. Watch the newspaper headlines and you’ll see a score or more like this during the coming year.

“Teacher Wins Trip to Paris”

“Cadillac Convertible Awarded to Limerick Writing Professor”

“Bermuda Vacation Goes to Prize Winning Teacher and His Wife”

“School Librarian Wins Lifetime Income from National Sponsor”

“TV Show Naming Contest Announces Teacher as Top Winner”

Jingles, puzzles, 25 words or less—how we love ‘em! It has been estimated that one teacher in three enters at least a few contests during his lifetime. Nationally some 14 million households a year pin high hopes on little box tops. Contest mail pays the keep of 700 postmen. A single contest has drawn as high as 27 million entries.

But don’t get discouraged at these high figures. There’s plenty of competition all right, but teachers because of their knowledge of words and their above-average education in general are always in a favored position to garner some of the top awards in most any contest. In a recent local contest—Big Bear Market Jingles—out of 50 metropolitan winners chosen, five were teachers at Denby High School. You don’t have to be an English teacher to win, either. Only one of the five aforementioned winners was an English instructor.

Walter Thome, a shop instructor at Denby High School, is a consistent winner. His home is furnished with the loot of 15 years of contesting. Joe Kleefus, history instructor at the same school, just began contesting last year. He first won an autographed Ted Williams baseball, then a couple of minor prizes for his little daughter, but at Christmas time Joe came up with fourth prize in the big national Crosley “What America Means to Me” Contest. He received \$1,000 and his church was given another \$1,000 by the Crosley Corporation.

School librarians are especially big winners in Contesting—“The Hobby That Pays.” Last year three Detroit librarians claimed prizes ranging from \$10,000 tax free to a trip to Paris for two.

Your odds on winning are neither as bright as some enthusiastic hobbyists claim or as dark as some cynics say they are. Mathematically, your chances for top money are remote, as the fabulous figures on the number of entries in national contests show. But the mere fact that you are a teacher tips the odds in your favor. Thousands of entries are thrown out in each contest because the rules are not followed to the letter. Teachers have a habit of observing rules carefully. Hundreds of other hopefuls lose out because of illiteracy or because they simply don’t have the knack of putting words together in a pleasing pattern. Teachers are usually good at expressing themselves in a clear, concise, and original manner. Teachers seldom submit entries that have to be thrown out for silly errors like no address, no box top, 26 words instead of 25, or a jingle that doesn’t rhyme. Yes, teachers are “naturals” to win contests.

The bigger the contest the more likely it is to be on the level, since the whole idea is to gain sales and good will. With six-figure money invested, no firm will risk a bad name or even a lawsuit by rigging the outcome. Sponsors know that any contest may face gimlet-eyed scrutiny by the post office or courts.

To insure honesty most of the big contests are handled by professional contest firms, engaged in the business of judging contests at a fixed or standard rate. The cost of handling and evaluating is, often, as much as one dollar per entry. Usually, high-school instructors are engaged to help in the judging of longer entries such as letters and essays. Most sponsors pay ten times the amount of the prizes in advertising and judging costs.

The Rueben H. Donnelley Corporation of Chicago, with branch offices in most of the large cities, handles about 40 contests a year, including 75 per cent of nation-wide competitions.

Donnelley crews type each entry on a numbered card without the entrant's name. Four sets of judges go through the cards to eliminate entries that don't meet all the contest rules. Survivors are scored by objective standards on carefully devised rating sheets by semi-final judges with advertising and copywriting backgrounds. Then executives with years of advertising and merchandising experience pick the winners.

"Thar's Gold in Them Thar Contests" for teachers, but if you want to increase your chances of finishing in the money, better start right now to study the sponsor's product. Remember, the idea is to sell it. So figure out how it's different and why it's better. Read the sponsor's advertisements for clues to what he likes to say and how he has paid professional ad writers to say it. Throw his own words back in his teeth, but don't parrot. Do it gently, sweetly, and if possible suggest a new use for the product that the admen haven't even thought of yet.

Work on your entry. Polish each word carefully. It's easy to enter, but not easy to win—not even for teachers. Search for fresh, original ideas. Make every word show color, action, or a picture that can stand out vividly above your competitors' efforts. Make your entry neat. Submit it in legible form, without fancy art work. Help the person who copies your polished "gem" on a card to get it right. And don't forget to enclose that all-important box-top!

Contests can be fun, and they can be made to pay. What other hobby that you can think of requires so little equipment? The cost of buying the sponsor's product? Oh well, you have to eat cereal, buy soap and use cosmetics anyhow—might as well buy the brands that offer prizes. Contests are certainly an outlet for a lot of pent-up creative ability. And if after a number of years of trying, you haven't, as in my case, won any of the major money prizes but a boastful number of the minor awards, you can consider yourself lucky.

Who wants to win a \$100,000 grand prize, anyhow? Just think of the taxes you would have to pay on it! But wouldn't it be nice to have the opportunity to just fondle it for a little while until Uncle Sam takes it away from you? Got to stop writing—my left thumb on my money-counting hand is beginning to twitch!

EDITOR'S NOTE

School people are "naturals" to win prizes in commercial contests because of their knowledge of words and above-average education, says Mr. Logan, who teaches in Denby High School, Detroit, Mich., and is a contest addict himself. He tells about teachers and librarians whose homes are "loaded with loot" from contests. If you'd like to try writing a last line for the limerick on Saw-Edge Soap, or telling in 25 words why Fall-Down Cake Mix is best, we suppose nothing we can do will keep you from reading Mr. L's tips on how to do it.

THE KIDS WHO *Ohm's Law* in education DRIVE YOU NUTS

By
CHARLES A. TONSOR

OUR CHILDREN are growing more and more disturbed. Teaching is a battle waged in the face of competing and conflicting activities. As important as what we teach and how we teach is understanding the *resistances* against which we teach, the resistances against learning.

When the school of which I am principal was first opened twenty-one years ago, I explained to the faculty that education was not in *vacuo* but occurred against certain resistances. I used the analogy of transmitting an electric current. Unless the current produced by the generator was sufficiently great to overcome the resistance offered by the wire, nothing would get through. Twenty-one years of work have shown that there is an Ohm's Law in education.

As a result of our unsettled national situation, our blundering, our war psychoses, home life has been seriously altered, children seriously disturbed, and education made to take a back seat in the face of easy dollars and the laborer's market. Immediate have replaced ultimates. Even in those schools which have switched from the older to the newer education, the situation is the same as before, if no worse. Delinquency has taken a sharp upswing. So have unmanageable children, the ones who drive you nuts.

Yet there is good in these children. Consider my special class. Every one is a headache. Yet we are "pals," we get along somehow, and the day does not pass that some of them of their own accord do not pop into my office before school, or show me a paper, or a note from a former student in Korea, or come in with a gripe. Why? They are looking for *something to hang on to*, a

life preserver in the turbulent sea of the present. I do not have them in regular classes, hence they do not fear that their marks will suffer. They have something that *stays put* from day to day. In normal school relations they are the result of personality upsets, many of them originating far down in the lower school. In the new relationship, none of the older associations is present.

The fundamental characteristic of these pupils is *hostility to school*. Yet when I suggested at first that they leave school or go elsewhere, I got a surprise. I always do. They can't conform, apparently; they do not want to do the work, apparently; yet they do not want to leave. They are getting something, something that has value, something they have not integrated with class work and class relationship. Time and again my question, "Why don't you want to leave?" receives this answer: "Because you're so strict!" If that isn't a reason for leaving, what is?

Somewhere along the line these children became traumatized; developed a hostility to learning the conventional things in the conventional way. Then they were pushed on to us. Unable to learn here because of prior hostility, recognizing that the fault lay elsewhere, nevertheless they reacted because the hostility was indurated.

Many of these children are not low I.Q.'s. Their non-learning has nothing to do with *intelligence*; it is psychological. The child says to himself, "I can't learn." His teachers have told him he couldn't learn. His family call him stupid. His playmates call him a dope. The total situation is so unpromising that at length he runs away from it only to

find the situation has become worse—truncy. Or he finds a compensation in trying to be a big shot in the community or in class, again to find trouble.

Sometimes the cause is growth conflicts combined with fears of being a maverick. A boy who wants to be a "he man" won't study because girls succeed better than boys and to be a good student is to be a girl, a sissy. Or a stout heart doesn't study. It is "chicken" to study and who wants to be "chicken"?

Sometimes students cannot permit themselves to learn because of a family pattern. A boy can find no stimulus to good work because his family sees no use to school work and is looking forward to the time when he can "get a job." A girl has heard her parents say over and over that she needs no education. Her duty is to keep house and bring up a family.

Some students feel they cannot stand the ignominy of being unable to compete financially and socially with the rest. No car, no dates, etc.

In some few cases gang values may be a strong force against learning and success.

In still fewer cases the cause may be in neuroses. They are mentally ill children. Some have not enough energy to get out of bed in the morning. In the classroom they fight, are destructive and uncontrollable for no apparent reason, and the whole class suffers by their presence.

Boredom also plays its part. It is in the nature of all of us to resist conformity, routine, rigid rules, and seek to go off on our own. Many gifted children are in this category. They are not stimulated sufficiently and become restless from monotony. Some of my gang are in this category.

The danger point is reached when the growing personality becomes frozen, when a fixed type of behavior sets in. It has taken me two months to break in some of these young colts. They just can't stand the harness and the check rein; they just can't understand the need of pulling their share

of the load. That's when they drive you nuts! That's when outward aggressive acts become the pattern, escape from reality appears, exhibitionism disturbs the class.

There is only one remedy I know of—supplanting "can't do" with "can do"—and it's a tough, wearing task. It requires the patience of Job, some darn good acting, a poker face, a smile, and a don't-know-when-to-quit.

What these children need is not policing of their experiences, not deterrents, not discipline, not just burning up excess energy, not removal of temptations, but *personality reconstruction*. And what a job! It's like tearing down a depressed apartment house to build a one-story dwelling. So much debris must be gotten out of the way.

Now personality reconstruction demands that we recognize that these children are in rebellion—inner or open; that change will not result from pressures imposed from without. You could beat the daylight out of a young lady who fights at home, in the neighborhood, in class, with teachers, to no avail. But when you say gently, "... your trouble is kindness. You have never learned what that means," that's a new ideal! About the fifth situation in which that is stressed, the idea begins to sink in. Then come questions. You have to show that kindness is not surrender; it is not defeat; it is self-esteem, self-valuation; that only persons who respect themselves can really be kindly. Then you have to show how a kindly person acts in the face of unkindness.

EDITOR'S NOTE

Dr. Tonsor, principal of Grover Cleveland High School, Brooklyn, N.Y., takes a particular interest in a special class for unmanageable children. These are "the kids who drive you nuts," yet he says that they have accepted him as a pal. He would like to tell you how they look at things—what makes them tick—and how he has found it advisable to deal with them.

Tedious? Yes! but the process has been building insight, and insight is the only means that I have found to produce results. Not even the psychiatrist can do more. He can merely hasten the development of insight; he merely spends more time on the process because the psyche has been impaired. But, unless he builds insight, he gets nowhere.

In every one of these children two factors operate: the predisposing and the precipitating. The former may be entirely out of our control; the latter may be largely in our control. The latter cannot have much result if the former is not there.

To work upon these children we as teachers must know as much as we can about both factors. Throwing young people out of the room for being discourteous, insolent, and what-have-you is no remedy. Hostility was the motivating cause to begin with and hostility has been strengthened rather than weakened.

That some are of low mental ability, we know. But the law makes us keep them in school. That many suffer from personality distortion, mental conflict, mental tensions, faulty habits, we also know. That many come from broken homes, homes where parents cannot get along, or homes where both parents have little time for children because they are at work, day and night; this too we know. And in all cases we know that the child is not getting the attention and contact which he craves. Some one must substitute for the missing factor if these young people are to change.

One thing the teacher should remember: in all our dealings with them we *must not become emotionally involved*. Becoming thus involved arouses the teacher's hostility and increases the student's already strong hostility. Second, these children can't stand the loss of what they like or value. They have so little that the additional loss leaves them feeling completely mistreated. Third, they need to be taught how to proceed. They may have no faith in the procedure at

the outset but they must be kept trying.

Often have I said, "Now go back and tell your teacher that he is mistaken, that you did not annoy the student next to you."

"I can't."

"Why not?"

"He'll throw me out."

"Why?"

"He always does."

"Why?"

"He doesn't like me and I don't like him."

"Go back and tell him just what happened. You'll have to do that if somebody on the job accuses you of something you haven't done."

Back he goes. A few minutes later he returns.

"Now what?"

"See, I told you; he threw me out."

A little later the teacher appears. "Why did you send that fresh, disrespectful, impertinent person back to me?" (Sounds like the oratory of the presidential campaign!)

"To whom should I send him?"

"Why don't you make him behave?"

"How shall I *make him*, when I cannot *make you* see that you should listen to him even when he is fresh?"

Now what? From this I have evolved a system that works with some of our most indurated cases, those who used to get into trouble at the drop of a hat. They still may, but one of the elements has been eliminated. "Don't argue with teachers or service guards," I tell them. "Just come up and argue with me. If a teacher sends you out, come to me. If a service guard makes out a summons, ask him to come with you to me."

The other day one of the gang who had had a record for fist fights with service guards came up with the guard. The guard explained his side; the boy his. Both were positive and the boy claimed mistaken identity. The guard claimed the boy had hit a smaller boy with a ruler. The boy claimed he had no ruler.

My question: "Why not bring up the

smaller boy?" Both agreed. Nothing happened.

Some days later I inquired of the guard. "We asked the smaller boy and he said this was not the boy but he wouldn't snitch on the boy who had done it. So we ended the matter."

That's the only way to educate these young people and break down their hostility—*experience* in the way. Start from where they are! They must learn how to solve

problems under guidance, but guidance means acceptance of the guide.

One of my gang quit school and went to work. Two months later he was back: "I've learned my lesson. I need and want an education." I took him back. He tries, and helps us in certain ways; yet he still rubs some people the wrong way. Even when reformed, such boys are not angels. But as Vergil has written, the road back from Hades is no cinch.



* * *Tricks of the Trade* * *

By TED GORDON

CUTTING UP—To make a good cutting surface when working with materials, cover your table with oilcloth with the wrong side on top. The fabric will not slip.—*Western Family Magazine.*

TALK BACK TO THE PLAYBACK—A tape or wire recording made in one class of the discussion of some current topic will arouse attention and provoke response when played back to other classes studying the same subject. Their remarks, added to the recording, will not only build up a comprehensive report but will develop interclass interest and cooperation.—*Elizabeth A. Straub, Central Junior High School, Allentown, Pa.*



EDITOR'S NOTE: *Readers are invited to submit aids and devices which may be of help to others. Please try to limit contributions to 50 words or fewer—the briefer the better. Original ideas are preferred; if an item is not original, be sure to give your source. This publication reserves all rights to material submitted, and no items will be returned. Address contributions to THE CLEARING HOUSE. Dr. Gordon teaches in East Los Angeles Junior College, Los Angeles, Cal.*

THOSE EXTRA JOBS—A mimeographed form on which are listed all the extracurricular affairs of the school and their dates should be distributed to each staff member early in the school year. This serves as a handy reference, but more important, it can be used as a list from which to choose which events the teacher wishes to assist in, so that a faculty committee can assign extracurricular duties more fairly.—*Paul Klinge, Thomas Carr Howe High School, Indianapolis, Ind.*

SETTING THE MOOD—Play a well-known record while your music class is assembling. It helps cut down on noise and talking and gets students in a listening mood.

BOOKS HEAVY ENOUGH?—For really heavy bookends for desk top or window-sill reference shelves, fill rectangular furniture wax cans half full of stones. Paint the cans your favorite color, apply decal ornaments, plant with hardy philodendrons, fill up with rich dirt—and you have custom-made "planter" bookends that will really stay put.—*Alice Oman, Lakeview High School, St. Clair Shores, Mich.*

JOBS FOR A DAY:

Miami Beach plan allows each student to get a cross-section of experience in a business

By
HAROLD RUBY

MIAAMI BEACH, the wonderland of America! Miami Beach, the tourists' paradise! It is in these words that most Americans express their thinking about the city of Miami Beach. It is, to them, a place of play, a place to swim, to gamble, to gambol.

But Miami Beach is much more than this. It is a community interested in the welfare of its citizens; a community striving to lift itself higher into the sun of progress; a community of homes and churches and schools. It is a community which is vitally interested in progressive ideas for educating its young people. The school is interested in this; the families strive to do their share; the business interests are determined to give their time and effort to further the educational development and understanding of young people.

Out of this type of thinking and willingness toward cooperative effort grew a community plan for occupational understanding.

The Miami Beach Senior High School, through the combined efforts of the business education department and the guidance department, worked out all the details of this plan in conjunction with the Miami Beach chamber of commerce, through the retail merchants division and the service division. The plan, simply stated, was to afford an opportunity to about fifty members of the senior class, each to spend one full day in some business enterprise; to let this day become an opportunity for each senior to familiarize himself with the many operations of this business and to make acquaintances with the business men in the

field, which might prove to be of advantage in future planning.

Here is the plan in detail. The chamber of commerce undertook to survey its over-800 membership and get commitments from at least 50 of these members to participate in the plan. They tried to have as varied a representation of retail and service organizations as was possible. At the same time, the school analyzed the guidance records of the graduating seniors and selected a group, from among these students, who had indicated an eventual interest in business.

After the first survey there were still approximately 100 of the graduating seniors who were eligible to participate in the plan. By this time the chamber of commerce had received definite commitments from its membership. Approximately 50 business organizations had agreed to participate. A selection committee was organized, to meet in the office of the principal of the high school and make tentative selections of students for jobs. This committee was made up of the principal of the high school, the dean of boys, the dean of girls, the chairman of the guidance department, the chairman of the business education department, the chairman of the senior class sponsors, and the executive secretary of the retail division of the chamber of commerce.

In making the selections, the committee considered many factors. First, the probable interest of the student in a particular type of business enterprise. Next, the factor of religion. Some of the employers had specifically indicated the religion of the students that were to come to them. Although none

of the members of the committee favored this type of religious discrimination, they recognized that it did exist in society and it was necessary to consider it. In fact, the students were informed of the fact that in some few instances the question of religion was a determining factor in the selections. Finally, the committee considered the matter of sex. Some types of work called for boys, some for girls, and some were available to members of either sex.

After the selections had been agreed upon by the members of the committee, a notice was sent to each student selected, giving him the name and address of his prospective business association for the day and the date on which the program was to be held. Should any of the selected students feel that for some reason he or she would not be able to participate, notice was to be sent to the chairman of the selection committee and a substitution made. Few of the students refused the opportunity. Those not chosen were made to understand that their failure to be selected was simply due to the fact that either there were not enough jobs to go around or the type of work in which they had indicated an interest was not available.

The preliminaries out of the way, the plan began to function. On the Wednesday night preceding the big day, each student was instructed to report to his assigned place of business at 5:45 P.M. He was given the name of the owner or manager and told to report to that person to introduce himself. Then each student, with the owner or manager, would go to some restaurant previously selected, as a guest of that person, for dinner.

The purpose of the dinner was twofold: It gave the student a chance to become acquainted with the business man and thus lose all sense of strangeness and nervousness before reporting for work on the following Saturday. Second, it provided the chamber of commerce with the opportunity of having some able men in the fields of merchandising and service speak to these young

people and inform them of the requisites for success in these fields.

On the following Saturday, each student reported to his place of employment. Here he spent the full day. He did not undertake any one job. The owner or manager moved him around from department to department so that he might get some insight and experience in each phase of the business. That meant that the student, in one day, might be a shipping clerk, work in the office, sell for awhile, handle stock for some department, help in making deliveries, learn something about advertising layout, and take part in many of the other activities of the particular business. At the end of the day, he was sent on his way with a friendly good-bye and ten dollars in salary.

Many of the students made very important business friendships through this plan. It frequently helped to crystallize their thinking as to whether to continue in a field of work or turn to some other field which might be more to their liking. Many found the opportunity for after-school and Saturday work, and for summer work, in the business of their choice. In this way, they were able to continue with their business training while still continuing their formal education. There is one case of a girl who worked in one of the large department stores and who is now studying at one of the large universities to be a department store

EDITOR'S NOTE

About fifty members of the Miami Beach, Fla., chamber of commerce cooperate with Miami Beach Senior High School in a plan to give selected seniors an idea of what it's like to work in a business in which they are interested. Each concern involved employs a senior for one day. The student isn't kept at one job, but is given a taste of working in various departments or phases of the business. Mr. Ruby is chairman of the business-education department of the school.

buyer. She has a steady summer and Christmas job at this department store and has been assured that she will be given full employment by the store upon her graduation from the university.

There are several improvements in this plan which it is hoped will be instituted in the near future. First of all, it has been agreed upon by both the school authorities and the chamber of commerce that it is not necessary to pay each of these students ten dollars, or any dollars for that matter, for the day spent in the business. It was felt that the benefits in experience received by the students are ample reward for the time put in. It was also felt that there should be no inducement of money to get the students to accept this opportunity. Such an inducement would only have the effect of bringing into the program some youngsters who are not interested in the educational experience but only in the money to be received.

The second criticism was that the school was unable to use this plan to check on the values of the curriculum in training students to participate in the business world.

The school felt that this was an excellent opportunity to check on itself, and to find and correct weaknesses in its program. The problem was how to accomplish this! The only way would be to ask the business men for a written analysis of the students' preparation for business. But these business men had already given a great deal of their time and effort. It was felt that it might be unfair to ask them to give up any more of their time to this project.

However, these business men once again showed their community interest in furthering education. They agreed that if the school would make up a questionnaire they would be glad to answer all pertinent questions put to them. This questionnaire is now in the process of being made. In the future, each student will take a questionnaire with him on the day he reports to his business and leave it with the business man. The latter will fill it out and mail it directly to the school. Then the school, by analyzing the reactions of these men, will have one more means of judging the adequacy of the curriculum.



Discussion vs. Argument in Social-Studies Class

One of the most important habits for good citizenship in a democracy is the habit of attacking problems by discussion rather than by argument. If the difference between argument and discussion is not readily apparent, it is probably because we do not point out that difference to our students as often as we should. . . .

How do we start? The first thing to do is to make the distinction between argument and discussion clear. A good way to do this is to work out with our students the difference between the two. Have them fill out a chart together on the blackboard comparing discussion and argument on the following bases: purpose, methods, characteristics, and results. The chart should come out something like this:

	Discussion	Argument
<i>Purpose:</i>	To find out the facts.	To prove you are right.
<i>Method:</i>	Asking questions.	Making dogmatic statements.

<i>Characteristics:</i>	Cool and collected.	Hot and bothered.
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<i>Results:</i>	New knowledge and valid opinions.	Strengthened prejudices, bloody noses, and black eyes.
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Your students will doubtless have different ways of expressing the differences and they may want to make further comparisons. However, after completing the chart, they should be able to distinguish readily between discussion and argument, to recognize them when they occur in class, and to appreciate the value of the former and the danger of the latter.

Then it can become a class game to call anyone who yields to the temptation to argue. Thus the class can police itself—and it will probably take a lot of policing—to keep class discussions from degenerating into arguments.—MARK F. EMERSON in *Social Education*.

SPORTS OFFICIAL

vs. Cantankerous Coaches

By
NORMAN SCHACHTER

PULL UP a chair, coaches, and let's bat this business of officiating around. From the actions, needling, and invective of the coaches, the "cat-calls" of the spectators, and the harpooning of the sport writers, referees and umpires are something to be yelled at, ridiculed, and abused. A man takes his life into his own hands, literally and figuratively, when he pulls on his official shirt and walks out on the field of play.

It's rough enough for an official to do a good job without coaches "working" him over. When a reputable coach of a Pacific Coast Conference basketball team tells the sportwriters that "Referee Blank was the best player the other team had," it's time to call in the dogs, put out the fire, and take stock of what we have.

Before discussing this any further, may I say that I have been a coach for over a dozen years and an official for not much less. This is the first year that "I have taken more than I have given" in the way of climbing an official's back. Perhaps the shoe on the other foot pinches a bit, but now that I have seen an official's complete picture, I am honestly ashamed of coaches' behavior, including my own, on the field of play. Now that the coaches have taken their crusade to the papers, perhaps a word or two on what's happening won't be out of line.

The best way to approach this subject is to break it down into two phases: (1) the coach's side, (2) the official's job. The spectator, of course, enters into the picture quite effectively, but as long as he pays his money, he is entitled to screech and scream—within reason. Most fans have a

favorite and want their team to win, and they let the umpire know their viewpoints quite vocally. If the crowd becomes unruly, the administration or police should handle that problem. Of course, the coach can influence the crowd, and only in that way will the spectator enter into this discussion.

Most coaches, being human, are working for their bread and butter and not merely for the "kicks." Most officials pick up a little money working at a ball game, but it is not enough to warrant the abuse they take. Officials don't have to take the assignments offered, of course, but that isn't the question at hand. Most of them enjoy the spirit of competition and are happy to be around sports. It couldn't be the money, for only a mere handful work at "big money" games in comparison to those who work the "five and ten" circuit. Schools would rather win than lose and as a result pressure is placed upon a coach. That's tough on a coach who doesn't have many ripe apples in his barrel of ball players. Coaches insist upon fair play on the part of their boys, but strangely enough, the coach often sabotages the spirit of fair play and good sportsmanship by his actions on the bench. It's understandable how and why a coach feels the way he does when a close play goes against him. Why the official should be blamed is another question. Don't misunderstand, for close calls have often determined ball games of mine, and quite often the other team benefited by the call. However, once the whistle has been blown and the decision made, no coach should "bleed" too much. Most calls are a matter of judgment and the only time a coach has a legal complaint

is when there is a mistake in interpretation.

Every time a coach kicks a chair, throws his hat upon the ground and steps on it, slams a towel against the bench and bounces like a yo-yo, the crowd echoes his sentiment and a feeling of hostility is thus created. In a crowded gymnasium, where most basketball games are played, this creates a most undesirable effect. The decision can't be changed, the players become upset, the spectators grow more boisterous, and the official starts mopping his brow. It is ridiculous for coaches to say that they are not complaining about a particular play but merely want the referee to be more careful on the next one. Any official worth his salt is not affected by a coach's histrionics.

This past season an increasing number of coaches have cried to the sports writers that officials have caused the loss of a game. True enough, perhaps, but this is an argumentative and undeterminable question. For every call, against one team, a call for it has probably been made. Perhaps coaches are "using" the officials as an alibi for a defeat.

It should be remembered that coaches have a part in selecting the list of officials. It is from approved lists that assignments are made, and seldom are officials sent to cover a ball game for a coach who has scratched their names or has given them unfavorable reports. Officials have to pass tests, learn interpretations, and employ proper mechanics before their names are placed upon the list for approval. Unfortunately, it is impossible to teach calls based solely on judgment. High test scores don't necessarily mean a good official, but at least they give the arbitrator an understanding of right from wrong. "Judgment calls" are what make officials either good or bad, and from the coaches' standpoint, no official is good—some just aren't as bad as others.

Coaches should join an officials' association to review and to learn the rules and their interpretations. The mere fact that a coach was once a high-school athlete or

"pro" player doesn't hold any water. Most players know little of the rules, especially the finer points which cause the trouble. Fellows who know the least shout the loudest. Could it be a defense mechanism?

Not too long ago a basketball coach remarked, "This fellow is the best running guard I've had in years." I didn't have the heart to mention that "running and standing" guards went out with the boom of "27." How can a coach who doesn't keep up with his professional reading and attendance at clinics expect to know the troublesome points of the game? Doctors, teachers, lawyers—even pick-pockets—have to keep working at their professions. If a doctor makes a mistake, you bury it but if the whistle-tooter "blows" one, you would think he is cutting off the coach's arm and hitting him with the bloody stump.

Professionals who coach full time can often keep up with the rules. High-school coaches who handle a full program in academic, shop or physical education, are usually too busy. Time should be set aside and in-service credit or institute points should be given for attendance at sport clinics or official meetings. With a further study of rules and an appreciation of "whistle-tooters," coaches might come to be known by their given names instead of as "Elevator Ed," "Bouncing Bob," "Jumping John," and "Pogo" Pete!

There is much talk of giving the games back to the players. Spectators' attention shouldn't be diverted toward the actions of the coach on the bench—or the official on the floor. Frankly, spectators are as weary of seeing a coach rant and rave as a referee bounce and bump. Coaches, as well as officials, are secondary figures upon the court of play and should not try to steal the spotlight. There might be a place for a colorful "character" in professional sport, but in a high-school activity the proceedings should be conducted in a dignified manner. Sportsmanship is taught the students as much by the behavior of the coach as by

the actions of his players on the field.

Football officials are far enough removed from the coach and crowd, and outside of an occasional bleat from the coach, things move smoothly enough. Basketball, the non-contact sport, is a different story. The coaches literally ride the umpire's back, and if there is any room left, a few spectators climb aboard. Before the game a coach slides up to the official and says he has observed that "Such-and-such" and "so-and-so" have been getting away with murder all year. "Keep an eye on him" are his final words. Naturally, the first time "so-and-so" does something, the coach jumps as though pricked with a needle. He is letting the referee and everybody who is watching know that what he warned the referee about is happening. From then on the curtain doesn't fall until the final gun.

Sportswriters keep bemoaning the fact that there are too many fouls called. The coaches and the various commissioners say an official should call a violation if it occurs. If an official overlooks certain things at the beginning and middle of a ball game and then tries to enforce the rules at the tail-end of the game, it is easy to guess what will happen. It isn't fair to ask an official to be consistently inconsistent. Perhaps the rule should read, "overlook my team, but watch the other fellow." Coaches have the opportunity to make suggestions to the rules committee to delete certain types of fouls. If they are in the book, it is not reasonable to ask officials to overlook them. Take out as many discretionary judgment calls as possible from the rules and the game will move more smoothly.

A word or two about baseball may be in order. Our national pastime is falling out of favor in secondary schools. Some administrators don't like the type of sportsmanship it encourages. Coaches who see themselves as future Stengels, McGraws, and Connie Macks question called strikes, putouts, and balks. Unquestionably, they are arguing for the next pitch, but if secondary schools

EDITOR'S NOTE

Mr. Schachter, a teacher in Washington High School, Los Angeles, Cal., has been on both sides of the fence: For 12 years he was a coach, and for almost as many years he has been an umpire or referee for secondary-school athletic contests. He thinks that we have a serious problem in the loud-mouthed coaches who fly off the bench, enraged at every close decision against their teams, to fight it out with the sports official—bickering, howling, jumping on their hats, obsessed with the need to win.

teach obedience to authority throughout the year, it is paradoxical to have students see a coach grab a bat and charge the "ump." Players are praised for showing high spirits. They should be complimented, but not if their high spirits show a complete defiance of the person in charge. No one wants a player or coach to lie down and wag his tail, but if it is purely a question of judgment, he should put his tail between his legs and take his position. Players should not be allowed to bait officials. Some people think coaching is like fishing with the coach "baiting" the referees until he gets a strike.

Wrestling and television may encourage a boisterous, belligerent, and back-handing attitude on the part of spectators. To make a good show the referee in a wrestling match has become the target of the two wrestlers when things get dull. The more abuse heaped on the caretaker of the two performers, the happier the crowd. With television viewing taking the place of homework, perhaps students honestly believe that's the way to win ball games and influence officials.

Coaches have more of a place in our daily way of life than ever before. With the international situation as uneasy as it is and the military service beckoning our young people, the coach can teach a philosophy which

includes respect for discipline, self-control, and tolerance of others. He can inspire co-operation and a willingness to play the game cleanly and fairly and to abide by the rules whether it be in sports, the military forces, or our daily life.

Somewhere I recall seeing the coaches' creed. It went something like this: "I believe my own actions should be so regulated at all times that I shall be a credit to the profession; I believe in the exercise of patience, tolerance, and diplomacy with game officials; I believe the teaching and demonstration of admirable characteristics will make

players better citizens; and I believe in developing high ideals of sportsmanship, qualities of leadership, unselfishness, and self-control through respect for authority."

I know I must have read that someplace, for I didn't learn it through the actions of coaches who are teaching rationalization and disrespect, lack of self-control, and disregard of authority. No one minds a "beef." Coaches should be enthusiastic and should want to win. A gripe never hurt anyone. But once a coach starts feeling sorry for himself—well—perhaps he should become a whistle tooter.

A Frill Furnished by Community Demand

By RAYMOND C. EMERY and JEAN HANNA

LAST JUNE Phoenix College (part of the Phoenix, Ariz., public-school system) sent out its first trained medical receptionists into the community. Before this time the administration and members of the faculty had defined the need for trained medical receptionists from the general grumblings heard in the community on the "shortcomings of education nowadays."

In laying the groundwork for this curriculum, the college worked closely with the medical doctors in the community to determine the qualities and knowledge they look for when they hire receptionists. The doctors agreed that technical medical knowledge is not necessary for the receptionist. What they desire is girls with a general knowledge of office procedures who can assume numerous responsibilities. The doctors specified that receptionists should have pleasing personalities and should know how to handle people—people who are ill, and people who probably just think they are ill.

The medical-receptionist curriculum has been planned cooperatively. The student receptionists are urged to take shorthand

because many doctors suggested that it would enhance their chances to get positions. The growing popularity of dictating and transcribing machines in doctors' offices has led the college to introduce a new course in transcription machines. A study is made of medical forms, and some medical terms are learned in conjunction with this phase of the course. The curriculum includes courses in sociology, psychology, social welfare, first aid, physiology, and hygiene.

Three departments—business education, biology, and social science have cooperated with the college administration and doctors in the community in setting up the medical receptionist curriculum. A doctor on the board of education has been effective in the liaison work with the doctors in the community.

The 1951-52 graduate medical receptionists and their employers will be surveyed to learn the effectiveness of the present curriculum. No doubt both the doctors and the graduates will be able to furnish valuable suggestions for improvement of this curriculum.

YOUTH HAS ITS SAY:

Life Insurance for Democracy

By RUSSELL C. MOCK

THE AMERICAN OCCUPATION agent strode into the classroom. The roomful of German students snapped to parade-ground attention—hands to their sides, chins in, chests out. The teacher stiffened, clicked his heels in formal greeting.

It was too much for the history teacher from Ohio. He stared for a moment in amazement. Then he cleared his throat and stepped to the center of the room. In his best military manner he ordered the class to sit down. He explained he was there only as an observer and asked the teacher to take over again. Not an eye peeked at the conqueror's representative during the rest of the afternoon.

When school was dismissed, the Occupation agent took a stroll down the tree-shaded streets of Stuttgart and pondered the situation. No wonder the adult German is a military machine. The indoctrination starts in the grade schools, goes on through the gymnasium, and continues in the war colleges.

Karl Suessenguth, the educational adviser to the Occupation, had been called to Germany to begin democratizing the schools. But what could be done, he wondered, if the country's youth was under strict regimentation every minute? Their response to his walking into the room had been that of a well-drilled platoon. They had to begin thinking for themselves if they were to fit into the world family of free men.

How to bring about this change was the problem; and Karl Suessenguth knew he needed a catalyst to get the change under way. He decided to try a tool that has been developing free thinkers in America's schools for the past ten years, the Junior

Town Meetings. And soon he was busy.

A Junior Town Meeting is like its big brother—a real town-hall session of give-and-take discussion on topics that affect all members of the group or community. The details of the plan are worked out by a guiding organization called the Junior Town Meeting League. The movement already has spread to thousands of schools in the United States, England, Canada, Belgium, and now—thanks to a forward-thinking American school teacher—to Germany.

But teaching young people who have known nothing but the regimentation of Nazism to think for themselves is not easy. It's a fearful thing to suddenly tell a person: "From now on you make your own decisions, you thrash out your own problems, and make up your own minds and arrive at your own conclusions." Telling this to someone who has never had to do anything but follow the leader is like moving a baby onto the street without warning and telling him to make his own way. Suessenguth knew what he was going to be up against. He had worked on Junior Town Meetings in the States and had one big problem—students are afraid to speak their minds on topics that concern them and their community.

He knew that he would have the same problem to overcome in Germany, and he knew his job would be many times more difficult. Even in the American home, where the child probably has more freedom of individual expression and self-determination than anywhere else in the world, his opinions are pooh-poohed and discounted by parents and other adults.

How many times, Suessenguth recalled,

had he watched a group of high-school pupils preparing for a Junior Town Meeting session full of life and ideas, only to fall silent and stiff when they actually got on the speakers' platform or behind a radio microphone? Only when he had been able to convince his young "experts" that they were about to speak from an untouchable platform, from a respected perch, would they loosen up and talk with the same ease and forcefulness they used among themselves.

In his first attempts to organize a Junior Town Meeting group in Germany, Suessenguth was not surprised to find the task of freeing young minds almost unsurmountable. He not only had to overcome the strict German family background, but years of regimentation by the government and school systems.

He decided they might follow the leader in Junior Town Meetings just as they had in most other projects. So he worked out a plan with the Occupation Authority and the Education Ministry for a week-long meeting of students and teachers to learn how to run a Junior Town Meeting.

This in itself was revolutionary. Never before had German students and teachers lived together to gain a better understanding of their mutual problems. Nearly 30 students and teachers met in the camp area near Stuttgart. At the first conference Suessenguth made a brief speech on the ideas and principles of the Junior Town Meeting movement. In the middle of it a teacher got to his feet.

"Mr. Suessenguth! I'm afraid I cannot remain for the rest of this meeting. Please take my name from the records." He looked pleadingly at the others.

"Can't you see what will happen to all of us here if the Russians ever come into this part of Germany? They'll find us listed as attending this meeting, learning how to run a discussion group. No—I've had my name on lists before. I won't endanger my family and myself again."

He left, but the others stayed on. The

teacher that left the group had grasped the very essence of Junior Town Meetings. They are democracy in action, and he knew they could only work in a country like the United States where the individual is supreme.

The Junior Town Meeting movement got under way in Germany. Slowly, to be sure, but each year more and more students are meeting behind the speakers' rostrum to discuss topics ranging from national political issues to school life.

A few weeks ago the story of how Junior Town Meetings were started in Germany was told to a group of American high-school students. The students were getting set for a televised Junior Town Meeting held in this country. The panel moderator told the story, thinking the idea of suppressed thought and family regimentation in Germany would startle these mid-west high-school students. But he got the opposite reaction.

A boy quickly told him: "We're not told what to say in this country, but we're reminded all day long what not to say."

That was the beginning of a real discussion. Several parents and teachers were in the room, and they launched right into the session. They soon learned what 'teen-agers think about parental and educational thought control.

"If my mother would do a little more suggesting and just plain talking, and a little less dictating, I think my whole family would be a little better off," said one 16-year-old girl. "In a couple of years I'm going to be pretty much on my own, but I still can't go downtown and buy a dress for myself. Sometime I'd like to make a mistake that's all my own."

A senior from a boys' academy backed her up. "I think the whole situation can be summed up like this," he said. "All kids would like a little guidance in things they do, but each year, or every few months, there ought to be a few more things we've become capable of doing for ourselves. But

it just doesn't seem to work that way. My brother is in his last year of college and already has a good engineering job lined up. But Mom and Dad still tell him what time to come in at night. What's he learning at college, anyway?"

In one city a girl had sent a copy of her opening remarks to the television station carrying a Junior Town Meeting in advance of a program. She had mailed the statement before showing it to her teacher. Before it had arrived at the station, the girl called the program director. She was indignant. Her teacher had seen the paper and had told her she could not under any conditions present it over the air, since her views were directly opposite to those of the majority of the parents in the school's area.

A few minutes later the teacher called to say the girl would rewrite her statement. She said the original one "was not to the point, and was not up to our standards."

When the contested statement arrived the entire station staff read it. It was wonderful. It reflected personal and definite viewpoints. It would have thrown a bombshell into the program and probably have caused much discussion.

But when the student arrived at the station, all the urging in the world did not bring her to speak as an individual. She talked in an intelligent manner, to be sure, but she did nothing but echo the views of her teachers and parents.

The same situation is true all over the country. In talking with producers and directors of Junior Town Meetings in dozens of cities I have found the same trouble evident. They all have the same problem, but most have not tried to analyze the cause.

They say students come down to the radio or television station and hold a lively warm-up session just before the broadcast; but as soon as they get on the air, the group becomes stiff. Original thinking and spontaneity go out the window.

What's worse—the same thing happens in Junior Town Meetings held in school audi-

EDITOR'S NOTE

Mr. Mock, public relations director of television station WTVN in Columbus, Ohio, is originator and producer of that station's youth discussion program, "Youth Has Its Say." There are more than 200 Junior Town Meetings in the U. S., and in almost 100 cities these are broadcast or televised. Mr. Mock explains their importance, and recommends them to teachers as eye-openers on what young people really think.

toriums. One school administrator said: "Their thinking is so regimented that it has to fit into the mediocre to be acceptable. They're afraid to get up in front of the school and sound off for fear the rest of the kids will think they're showing off. It goes back to the home, just the same."

Probably because of this very pseudo-regimentation the Junior Town Meeting movement is growing rapidly all over the world. Usually a series starts off with only mild interest. After a few weeks, each school has dozens of students clamoring for the chance to be heard.

More than 200 Junior Town Meetings are regular features of the school year in the United States. More groups are being formed every year. In nearly one hundred cities these sessions are broadcast or televised, with nationally-known personalities acting as guest moderators.

In Columbus, Ohio, where one of the first televised series is now a community-wide project of the Junior Chamber of Commerce and several large business concerns, the viewing audience telephones questions to the panel for discussion. In many cases college professors and school administrators question the young people, not seeking to trap them, but with genuine interest.

One teacher wrote a program moderator on the west coast to say: "Let's have more teen-age topics on your program. I can learn more about my students from listening to

one discussion than in a hundred class sessions."

Parents have reacted that way, too. In one mid-western city the phone rang during the show and the lady asked for the station manager.

"I've been watching those high-school kids you have on there. They know more about world affairs than any of my friends." The panel had been discussing the possibility of admitting Spain to the United Nations. "One of those boys is my nephew. I never realized he was anything but my sister's little baby."

The story is the same across the country. Parents and teachers alike get an eye-opener in Junior Town Meetings. Students often air problems that teachers and administrators don't know exist. Parents hear themselves taken apart and analyzed on panels discussing such problems as "going steady" and weekly "allowances."

Literally hundreds of thousands of young people have participated in Junior Town Meetings during the past several years. In Cincinnati, where Junior Town Meetings are a project of the board of education, it is estimated that more than 25,000 students and adults have taken a part in the discussion sessions.

The Junior Town Meeting movement has grown to such proportions that regularly scheduled trans-Atlantic panels are being held. The British Broadcasting Company works with 14 stations on this side of the ocean, setting up short-wave links between one of their studios and one here.

With half the panel and a moderator in

England and half the panel and another moderator in the U.S.A., the students discuss international problems back and forth as if they were face to face across the table.

Sometimes such shows provide a rapid lesson in diplomacy for the students. One student in America talked for some time about the "two world powers, the United States and Russia." After a few minutes of this a London student remarked in a rather bored tone that "the British Isles had not yet sunk below the waves."

Occasionally a parent or listener will call to say: "Why do you ask these children to discuss world problems, when all they know is dating and their school work?"

Whenever such a comment is passed on to the students, it usually produces a violent reaction. Most of them spend hours of close research in preparation for an appearance on Junior Town Meeting. Usually teachers and students get together and discuss the topic before the program. Many topics take little formal research, but they all require clear thinking.

One student grinned into the camera through a set of false teeth at the start of a show and said: "Boyl Am I an expert on this subject!" A few weeks earlier he had his teeth knocked out in an unusually rough football game. His topic: "Are athletics over-emphasized in public schools?"

No matter what the subject is—athletics, world affairs, or petting—you can be sure of one thing when you listen to Junior Town Meeting: You'll learn things you never knew about the young people of today. And you'll develop a new respect for them.



It's Not You He Hates

Any child at any age has a tendency to repeat in other situations conflicts with members of his family

In the school situation his attitude toward the teacher and toward other pupils is determined by his feelings about his family. The outward behavior is not always similar—it may be very different—but the feelings behind the behavior are al-

ways based on old problems which are rooted in his family relationships.

It is important to recognize this phenomenon, because most of us tend to be too sensitive when people react negatively to us. We take it very personally. It is difficult for us to remember that the hostility is not necessarily directed toward us. . . .

—CONSTANCE COVELL in *The Massachusetts Teacher*.

TEACHERS, TOO, *have* Individual Differences

By

LENORE M. MARTIN

IN THESE DAYS of core, group dynamics, sociograms, sociodramas, Q-SAGO lesson plans, experience units, problem solving, field trips, pupil planning, dioramas, etc.—all of which are effective teaching procedures when handled skillfully—a teacher may have a feeling of frustration when he finds himself unable to cope with the latest of the “new-fangled” educational devices and its many relatives. It is a really rare teacher who can take each and every classroom technique now being advocated and see it work in a completely satisfactory manner, even on the second try.

Some classroom methods may be just what a particular teacher has been searching for; others would best be discarded by that teacher. The fact that individual differences exist among teachers as well as pupils must be accepted. We must begin to realize that education is not a mimic affair. The teacher needs to study, to experiment, to analyze the many new teaching procedures to find the ones for which he is best fitted or to which he can most successfully adapt himself, or, better, the ones he can adapt to his capabilities. Because one method may be a failure under his supervision is no reason for criticism to be heaped upon him by his supervisors or his colleagues; an occasional failure should not be the cause of discouragement or resignation of effort. A little forethought about his aptitudes and the special qualifications required by certain educational techniques could save the teacher from unnecessary disappointment. An honest experimental approach to the newer methods will permit discarding with a free conscience.

Professional magazines and newspaper articles, teacher-education classes, and in-service training programs seem, somehow, to give the impression, on the whole, that all new procedures will function equally well for all teachers and that they should be adopted by all teachers. Patterns for improvement of public education in our country are constantly being proposed, and there is “much ado” about teachers keeping pace with the rapid discovery of new principles and techniques for educational improvement.

Complaints are made that teaching methods often lag behind advances in educational psychology. Leaders consider it their dedicated task to see that schools make the best of “sound” modern methods and principles by almost insisting that they be adopted by everyone, giving little or no thought to teacher and teaching differences. It seems we often fail to realize that certain teaching techniques require certain aptitudes; it must be remembered that not all of us have qualities equal to those of the leaders in the field.

We may all possess that fundamental quality of a good teacher, an all-consuming love for children, but our approaches in making learning meaningful will be as different as our personalities, our psychological make-up, our store of energy, our ingenuity, our background of personal growth, our beliefs and convictions and our cultural tastes and inclinations. We cannot keep these traits from infiltrating our classroom guidance of learning. Even our enthusiasm in certain learning areas will certainly vary in degree. No sensible person will shun

EDITOR'S NOTE

Teachers, like pupils, have "individual differences," Mrs. Martin reminds us—and this is an important consideration when it comes to the use of modern teaching methods. The author, who is in the Bellefonte, Pa., Public Schools, suggests a plan by which each teacher can select the modern methods that seem to go best with his nature, and tailor them to fit.

progress and change, of course; yet he will recognize that as teachers vary and differ, so the effects of the new learning approaches, which can be labeled "sound" only when they are effective, will also differ. Effectiveness will depend on the ability of the teacher to manipulate that particular technique.

A teacher cannot and should not try to imitate another teacher. Some conscientious teachers, attempting to be modern and progressive, are struggling helplessly, somewhat confused and bewildered, sometimes even unaware of their own ineffectiveness. The public has sensed the uncertainty and has at times heaped criticism upon what in other circumstances and under the direction of a different personality might have resulted in effective teaching and meaningful learning.

Even more teachers have lost sight of original objectives and have become concerned with process, forgetting that curriculum includes content as well as process. In such cases critics have been known to state that today's teachers follow a new practice called, "Play with them; pet them; pass them."

In some schools jealousy over degrees of success in using a new device may arise among teachers who were expected to adopt the procedure if they wished to be classed as professionally alert. Others have been known to give up entirely, resorting to the false promise of security in "the next ten pages of the text." They found following

in another's footsteps an unpleasant and unstimulating task.

We must begin to realize that before adopting a new approach in our teaching, we must analyze our capabilities.

All-out pupil-teacher planning, for instance, requires a genuine skill for organization and management, the same skill required of the executive. For success, one must tread first on very sure ground. Another teaching technique may require clerical aptitude—ability to scan, to record, to report, to account for; one must have an innate feeling for system, be accurately systematic.

An effective field trip requires keen powers of observation and ability to handle lively groups no longer confined within four walls; it requires patience, tact, foresight, managerial ability. In any activity type of procedure, a teacher must have vision and a sure sense of direction. Correlations demand planning time and an extremely well-versed teacher.

Those instructors who feel results are valueless after an experiment with a new technique should take a second look, study the pros and cons, keep the successful elements for integration with another unit, discard the unsuccessful, and look ahead to taking on another experiment. The guide for judging effectiveness of any program will be the pre-established objectives of the course.

Teachers should begin to analyze themselves, to recognize and to note their weaknesses and their areas of strength. They should begin only those processes in which they can have faith; there must be an atmosphere of certainty, of confidence. Teachers are not "keeping up with the Joneses." They are attaining the objectives of the courses they teach in the most efficient manner, with procedures that coincide with their personal aptitudes and abilities. Even a teacher who uses the lecture method, if the interest of his pupils is captured by his oratorical ability and turned into learn-

ing, cannot be classed as outdated and ineffective by a discerning critic.

Some teachers have undertaken too much at first and have attempted a complete revolution. Those great masses of us who have five or six classes a day, our pupils totaling between 150 and 200, find it compulsory to begin slowly any innovations and to move horizontally at a gradual rate of speed; later we can move to another gear and begin to think vertically as well.

One small class might be used for experimentation. Use one new unit of study each semester, or even each year. Try pupil planning first in a field where your own background of knowledge is especially rich. Consult the art teacher and the music

teacher for a few basic suggestions for correlation. See the history teacher for a simple general outline for a relationship to your course. Talk with the guidance director about the value of sociograms. See the English teacher about a few rules for good reading and for some spelling hints.

However, attempt a little at a time. In other words, set your own pace. Set aside that which you find does not parallel your capacities as a distinct and different personality.

Accept change, yes; but in this scientific age, take a scientific approach: read, observe, study, consider, analyze, experiment, and "hold fast to that which is true" for you in your classroom.



Sure You May Go Home

Yesterday a little girl shambled into my office and said she had a headache and wanted to go home. She had no fever, no obvious symptoms of illness, and by all the rules of clinical medicine and school management I should have said firmly and accusingly to her, "There's nothing wrong with you. You must stay in school."

Did I? Of course not. Medicine to the contrary, and school management to the contrary, I said this very kindly to her, "Look, sweetheart, you know best how you feel. If you really feel too ill, or too worried, or perhaps too scared to stay with us today, why of course go home and take it easy. I'm sure you'll feel much better in the morning and I'd be happy if tomorrow morning you'd come in and tell me how much better you feel."

The child left with a puzzled and grateful look in her eye. Did I feel any anxiety in my inner nature because of a suspicion that the child had "put something over on me"? I certainly did not. I'm not the Lord High Executioner or the Angel Gabriel. I simply figured, as I will continue to figure, that trust, gentleness, and affection are the basic ingredients out of which all good flows.

This morning at eight o'clock sharp the little girl paced into my office, and smiling for the first time in weeks she said to me, "I promised you I'd come in this morning. I want to tell you I'm feeling fine."

You remember it was Jesus who simply said to a

woman caught in sin, "Go and sin no more." He did not denounce her, vilify her, intimidate her, punish her, or cross-examine her. It is so easy to read Scripture and then conveniently forget it.

Everybody these days is talking about how important "security" is to our welfare. It certainly is. But not the "security" that comes from having everything provided for us as if we were chickens on the chicken farm.

The "security" that we want for our children is the kind that is based upon an assurance that they are wanted, loved, and appreciated. We want the kind of "security" that is based upon the confidence of understanding and faith.

You will never develop this kind of "security" if you subject children to a sceptical and microscopical scrutiny that questions their motives, their assertions, and their imaginings.

Do children lie to me? Of course they do. They also pretend and bluff and cajole and weep and sulk. But this is because they are children and they employ children's mechanics.

Sure I'll tolerate these without fear of hurt to my dignity.

King Solomon said something about acting like a child when you are a child.

He had a reputation, I believe, for wisdom.—LEON MONES in *Principal's Bulletin*, Cleveland Jr. High School, Newark, N. J.

Ready-Made Audiences for SPEECH CONTESTS

By WILLIAM S. TACEY

AT THE AVERAGE high-school speech contest the speakers find themselves speaking to small audiences. In fact, the term audience is a gross exaggeration. The listeners are usually a judge, a chairman, a timekeeper, perhaps a parent or two, one's opponents, and occasionally a school-bus driver or a janitor who wants a warm place where he can sit and doze until he can go home.

All sorts of schemes have been tried in attempts to attract an audience of eager listeners. Occasionally one works. An English teacher may require her students to observe a debate in order to get ideas for future classroom exercises. Debate coaches, who also are history teachers, have even been known to bribe their students with the promise of "no night work" as a reward for attendance at a high-school speech program.

Getting patrons to attend speech events is difficult. Athletic contests? Yes. Band concerts? Frequently. Senior plays? Especially popular among the family and friends of the leading lady. Extemporaneous speaking contest? "Doesn't sound very interesting." Efforts to entice audiences to speech events are expensive and unrewarding. The school-activities budget will seldom expand sufficiently to include necessary funds for extended advertising programs. Even the most persuasive speakers (teen-ager or adult) find barriers in talking patrons into parting with four bits, plus tax, for a debate.

In every American community there are many ready-made audiences who have weekly or monthly programs. Tradition requires that a speaker appear at a majority

of their meetings. Young people belong to after-school Girl or Boy Scout Troops, Hi Y or Y-Teens. They have History Clubs and Chemistry Clubs, even sororities and fraternities (frequently sub-rosa). Parents have service clubs, such as Kiwanis, Rotary, Optimist, and Lions for the men, while their wives join Business and Professional Women, Altrusa, etc. All meet weekly, usually for lunch or dinner. Churches have "classes" for people of all ages. These generally meet every Sunday morning and on a week-day night once a month for a business and social hour.

Fraternal organizations, such as Knights of Columbus and Junior Mechanics, have programs frequently for their members and friends. The state penitentiary's educational program may afford a real "captive" audience. Local radio microphones and television cameras are frequently available to the imaginative teacher of able speakers. Most of these groups are ever ready to welcome someone who will come and speak, especially if he is entertaining, even more so if he expects no honorarium.

The speech teachers in many communities have availed themselves of these ready-made audiences. They have found student speakers well qualified for guest appearances. First, the teen-ager is physically attractive. He has a freshness about his appearance as well as his point of view. He is frequently well informed on his subject. He has had the advantage of some recent expert teaching and coaching. His appeal has been found to be decidedly persuasive.

During World War II students from McKeesport, Pa., Technical High School

spoke at every show in the city's four motion-picture theaters, and in numerous club meetings in the interest of the drive to provide scrap metal for the steel mills of the Pittsburgh district. In a campaign to raise \$400,000 for a local hospital the high-school Speech Club formed a "Hospital Speakers Bureau" and filled all assignments, which the campaign committee gave them in abundance.

Annually the Allegheny County (Pa.), Community Chest organizes a Junior Speakers Bureau of about fifty high-school students to make good-will speeches for the Chest. One Lion's Club has thought so highly of student speakers that it has not only scheduled a student program the third Tuesday in January for several years, but invites the entire Speech Club of fifty to a "victory" dinner on the second Tuesday of May each year, following the spring contests.

Dozens of students in the Pittsburgh area take part in church meetings under teacher supervision, sometimes in a church service, more frequently in a "class" meeting. Until a ruling prohibited visitors under twenty-one, a high-school group debated annually before a large assembly of prisoners of Western (Pa.) Penitentiary on the current national debate question. In a few instances inter-scholastic debates have been held before adult audiences at their regular meeting times and places and at their expense for the students' and coaches' dinners.

The speech teacher who determines to take teen-age speakers to community audiences may well examine his work carefully before exposing it to public view. Are the students sufficiently well prepared for speaking? Are they informed about the audience? Are they ready to make suitable adaptation? Is the teacher confident of the aims of his own work and is he able to explain what he is attempting? Does he know his own community sufficiently well to help his students prepare?

Here is a time-tested system for adminis-

tering such a program, which I developed during several years of high-school speech teaching and coaching:

1. Use the program as a laboratory for the regular classroom work.
2. Let the audience appearances serve as practice sessions for contests. Hold the contests themselves before community audiences in their own meeting places.
3. Let the students assume much of the responsibility for the details of planning and scheduling.
4. If annual awards, such as school letters or numerals, are given, let audience appearances count much toward them.
5. Supervise carefully and faithfully. Attend most meetings. Have a period of criticism after each appearance.
6. Have a fool-proof schedule to avoid missing engagements.

The rewards for using speakers before community audiences are many. For the teacher there is the greatest satisfaction possible—that of seeing his students excel. He quickly learns, too, that students are more ready to learn when they are inspired by a situation which requires their best efforts. The student has the reward of "learning by doing." In a real-life situation he begins to appreciate the need for being direct in his speaking, for doing so results in holding the audience's attention. He learns to support his generalizations with specific information and good illustrations. The open forum following a debate, for instance, soon reveals to the speaker whether

EDITOR'S NOTE

It isn't necessary for your school's speech contests to be held in a room that is empty except for the officials, the opponents, and maybe the janitor, says Mr. Tacey. Various schools have found that the community is full of ready-made audiences—the clubs and organizations that have regular meetings and would be glad to have the contest as its program for the occasion. Mr. Tacey is associate professor of speech at the University of Pittsburgh, in Pennsylvania.

he knows his subject or not. His reasoning improves. For he quickly learns that audiences are best persuaded or convinced by abler speaking than is sometimes tolerated in the classroom. This live audience makes the necessary hours of practice seem essential but more pleasurable.

The school profits by showing the patrons some samples of the best work that is accomplished each year. The appearance of able, well-trained speakers tends to offset the effect of some of the sophomoric pranks

indulged in so often by the juvenile scholar.

The community is rewarded by having programs provided for various meetings that satisfy their needs at a nominal cost.

How are students selected? Within the limits of the capacity of the classroom and the time at the disposal of the teacher, all students who wish to take part are admitted to the classes. The author believes in using a waiting list. This plan of volunteering results in a good balance of ability and keeps all the speakers motivated.

Findings

HEARING: When more than 25,000 children in the Milwaukee, Wis., Public Schools (all of those enrolled in the first, third, sixth, and ninth grades) were given a hearing test with the pure-tone audiometer, 2.71% were found to have a hearing loss "sufficiently great to be reported to the health department and the department of special education." Of those with hearing deficiencies, says *Teaching Progress*, Milwaukee school periodical, two-thirds had a hearing loss of more than 25 decibels, and thus had a definite hearing handicap which could affect their school progress.

COUNCIL MEMBERS: There doesn't seem to be much relationship between the number of students in a high school and the number of members of its student council, according to a study of the student councils of 137 Oregon schools reported by Willard Bear in *Student Life*. The 12-member student council is the most popular—but the 20 schools that have councils of that size have enrollments ranging all the way from 48 to 1,900 students. Almost half of the schools reported student councils with 8 to 12 members—but their student bodies varied from 21 to 1,900. The full range of student-council size ran from 4 members in a school with 54 students to 60 members in a school with 1,800 students. Two small schools with enrol-

ments of 23 and 30 students settled the matter by making every student a member of the council.

STATE ASSOCIATIONS: Although at least 17 state teachers associations are older than the National Education Association, which was organized in 1857, the state groups drifted along with small memberships, acting as little more than associations for putting on an annual convention, until 1910. That's how T. D. Martin sums it up in *Phi Delta Kappan*. Modern state teachers associations, he says, date from 1909, when the California association employed a full-time secretary and began a program of public relations, lobbying, research on educational problems, etc.

This kind of program began to bring in the members. In 1907 only 14% of employed teachers were members of state associations. By 1930, about 77% were members. And in 1952, more than a million teachers, or 92%, were members. Today, lobbying by teachers "is standard practice in practically every state." But while "great progress has been made" in influencing legislation, many of the baffling old problems remain to inspire teachers to better techniques in buttonholing state politicians.

PHYSICS: Among 877 students who took a beginning course in physics at Louisiana State University between 1947 and 1950, there was little difference in achievement between those who had taken a year of high-school physics and those who hadn't, states Sam Adams in *Science Education*. The mean year mark for students who'd had high-school physics was 4.856, while for those without high-school physics the mean was 4.758. Of course, the students with high-school physics may have tended to feel safer, and to do some coasting.

EDITOR'S NOTE: Good, bad, indifferent or important, there is a great amount of counting studies and other research going on in the field of education. We think readers will be interested in brief, unqualified summaries of some main points in some of the findings. Lack of space prohibits much explanation of methods used, degree of accuracy or conclusiveness, and sometimes even the scope of the study.

DIAGRAMMING:

Trust Your Experience, Not Theories

By

DON M. WOLFE

OF THE SOME two hundred books on grammar in the New York Public Library, not one contains research on the effectiveness of diagramming as a device for teaching the principles of grammar.

Professor Harry A. Greene in a recent article showed that no research had been published in this field between 1928 and 1941. Of 250 language studies listed by Lyman in 1929 (going back to 1900), not one had mentioned diagramming.¹ The only studies of any length which purport to test diagramming for any reason, according to Professor Greene, are five unpublished masters' and doctors' theses written at the University of Iowa between 1939 and 1945.²

No one of these studies attempted solely to test the effectiveness of diagramming in teaching the principles of grammar as such. They attempted rather to test the correlation between ability to diagram and ability to read, to punctuate, to master points of usage, to use varied sentence structure, etc. The effectiveness of diagramming was correlated in the main with the pupil's improvement in language skills from direct grappling with errors in his written work.

Careful investigation on a broad scale is necessary, then, before any positive pronouncements can be made on diagramming as a technique for teaching grammar. To what extent is diagramming useful in recognition of transitive verbs, prepositions, predicate pronouns, etc.? This correlation has yet to be tested. It is not the effectiveness of grammar itself which is at issue, but the effectiveness of diagramming in teaching

grammar, whatever may be the functional value of grammar itself. In the absence, then, of any substantial evidence one way or the other on the effectiveness of diagramming, critics and policy-shapers are reduced to statements of judgment and analysis, a number of which have appeared within the past few years. The present reappraisal of diagramming is one of these judgments, not a scientific conclusion.

I think that not even Mr. Tovatt would venture to call his article, "Diagramming: A Sterile Skill," a scientific conclusion on the effectiveness of the diagram in teaching grammatical principles. Mr. Tovatt's main point is that people who have had diagramming in school cannot diagram now.³ The question should have been, "What grammatical principle, if any, did diagramming help you to understand?" The recognition of a transitive verb or a preposition is the important thing, not the particular pictures that explained these principles at the time.

When Dean J. C. Seegers asserted, "Diagramming has no effect on usage; it teaches people to diagram,"⁴ he made two judgments, the first of which is unverified by evidence (granting that formal grammar at any point, such as the case of pronouns, has any effect on usage), the second of which, like Mr. Tovatt's conclusion, is irrelevant to the main issue of the relation of diagramming to comprehension of abstractions.

In his article, "Grammar: How Much for

¹ *English Journal*, February 1952, pp. 91-93. The weakness of Mr. Tovatt's approach was very competently analyzed in Miss Zelma Beck's excellent article, "Discard Diagramming?" in *The English Journal* for June, pp. 319-20.

² Address to the National Council of Teachers of English, Buffalo, 1949.

³ *Elementary English*, May 1947, pp. 278-79.

⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 278-82.

College?" Mr. Carl Constein shows that ten colleges put parts of speech high on the list of English requirements—distinction between transitive and intransitive, etc.—but no emphasis at all on how to diagram a sentence.⁵ Again, this last (assuming that several hundred colleges would report the same thing) is an irrelevant conclusion. No college cares *how* a student analyzes a sentence, so long as he can do it. The important question for us is whether or not diagraming is a means by which the student can learn parts of speech, regardless of his dependence on the diagram in college or after.

"Strenuously I decompose the sentence." This pupil sentence is the key to Dr. J. N. Hook's objection to any formal classification of parts of speech.⁶ Dr. Hook confidently looks forward to a time when the composing of sentences will take the place of this demoralizing dissection.

Now it certainly is possible to make a fascinating game of building sentences without any grammatical terminology. The infinite variety of what Winston Churchill has called "the noble structure of the English sentence" can be attained partially by experimenting with new patterns of word order and rhythms. Such an exercise is profitable without any knowledge of grammar. It becomes much more valuable, of course, when the teacher can say, "Now open the same sentence with an infinitive, as Conrad does in the passage I shall read," or "Open your sentence with a past participle as in this passage from Thoreau."

The classroom teacher understands, however, that the problem of creative sentence building and the problem of a real comprehension of pronouns and verbs (which account for ninety per cent of written errors) are only remotely related. The function of sentence analysis will remain as long as any inflection exists in the language.

When a person says, "Here is a present

for you and me," must he not analyze the sentence to see what case of pronoun he should use? It is true that those who have heard little but correct speech do not have to think about such matters. But sooner or later the average boy or girl brought up in a home where correctness in pronouns is a precarious variability would like to be able to analyze his own sentences in split seconds to be sure he uses correct pronoun or verb form. As long as any such need exists, we shall have need for decomposing our own sentences as we speak.

If a diagram, a chart, a cartoon, a comic book, or any other visualization can help us decompose a sentence instantly, it is timely and functional in helping us attain correct speech. To compose a sentence in school using the correct pronouns is certainly, as Dr. Hook points out, a valuable procedure. But the test in daily life is unfortunately one of instant decomposition of a spontaneous sentence, not the speaking of an artificial one.

In a somewhat different category belong Miss Lou La Brant's comments on diagraming in *We Teach English*: "The evidence is strong for the conclusion that diagraming, once a popular form of mental gymnastics, is not helpful to writing nor to real understanding of grammar."⁷ Miss La Brant's first assumption, that diagraming "was once a popular form of mental gymnastics," is without relevance to current classroom needs.

Her second assumption, "not helpful to writing," has much evidence to support it if we equate grammar with diagraming. Neither grammar nor diagraming can be helpful to writing in the sense of free personality expression, use of concrete diction, or principles of elementary semantics, such as the confusion of assumptions with facts. Certainly the evidence shows that a high degree of fluency and accuracy in certain fields of writing may be attained with-

⁵ *The Clearing House*, April 1952, pp. 486-87.

⁶ *The Clearing House*, Sept. 1951, pp. 25-28.

⁷ *We Teach English*. Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1951, p. 210.

out knowledge of grammar, however taught.

As for the third point, "not helpful . . . to a real understanding of grammar," Miss La Brant faces the real issue squarely and presents an altogether unproved assumption in answer. In place of what Miss La Brant calls "strong evidence," we have thus far literally no evidence at all.

In their single mention of the word *diagramming* in their recent report, *The English Language Arts*, Miss Dora Smith and the Commission on the English Curriculum are more cautious than Miss La Brant. The report speaks of "the futility of diagramming and other schemes of logical classification for effecting improvement in sentence structure."⁸

Certainly diagramming in itself does not teach the pupil to manipulate the parts of the sentence. The function of recognizing a prepositional phrase does not precede the use of a prepositional phrase in speech and writing. Even little children may be taught to vary sentence structure without any formal terminology. The Commission does not deal directly, then, with the question of whether diagramming and other forms of formal classification are efficacious in teaching grammatical principles.

Does diagramming enable the pupil to analyze his own use of nominative and objective case as he speaks sentences? Does it help him to use the objective case after prepositions and transitive verbs? If so, it functions in a very vital way in terms of correctness in usage. Informal attacks on usage can eliminate many errors. They cannot, however, give the pupil that assurance that only a sound knowledge of grammar can give him when he wants to be correct.

Many things are more important than correctness. But for the people who want correctness, there are some aspects of English which only grammar can help. For this kind of correctness the question then

⁸ *The English Language Arts*. Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1952, p. 301.

EDITOR'S NOTE

Dr. Wolfe writes that he has read a number of professional articles which "show a profound misunderstanding as to why teachers cling to diagramming as the most dramatic way of teaching grammar." Although he is opposed to the "prevailing emphasis on formal grammar," he advises teachers to rely upon their own judgment in the matter of diagramming rather than theorists' denunciations of it, because valid facts to support them do not exist. Dr. Wolfe is the author or editor of numerous textbooks, anthologies, and books on literature; and he is general editor of an editorial board which is preparing the complete prose works of John Milton for Yale University Press. He teaches in Brooklyn College.

remains, "Is diagramming the most effective road to the mastery of grammar?"

The teaching of grammar as a system of language principles, not as incidental illumination of a pupil's errors in speech and writing, has a place, large or small, whether justified or not, in most American schools. How to teach these principles effectively and economically is possibly the most baffling problem of the English curriculum.

One thing is certain: When a teacher is required to teach grammar, it is worse than useless to tell him to teach it half-heartedly or superficially. If taught at all (and this is not to claim that it should be), grammar must be approached as a separate subject. It is agonizing to any conscientious teacher to see ten or twelve pupils out of a class of thirty floundering in a morass of grammatical terminology imposed for a period or two, a week or two, with a few bright pupils hurrying ahead, perhaps having mastered the principles several years ago.

It is out of a feeling of frustration and desperation that teachers of the past two decades have turned again to diagramming as a means of visualizing the parts of speech and the structure of the sentence. The

teacher doesn't care particularly about the method of diagramming. He cares about having a picture, a cartoon, a moving picture, a dramatization, anything that can reduce the abstract to the concrete, especially for the weak students of the class. What a map is to geography and history, the chart to civics, the triangle to geometry, the graph to physics, the diagram is to grammar. The more abstract any principle, the more necessary some means of visualization. Yet many specialists in education are strong for visual aids in every field except in the teaching of grammar.

Like most methods, diagramming may be used creatively or mechanically. With it one may attempt to explain rare subtleties of language use (is any one of us without his favorite ones?) or use it to drive home the barest essentials in undress, keeping the sentences five or six years younger than the pupils (a necessity in all teaching of grammar until first principles are established), avoiding for the time being all confusing exceptions. Diagramming, like any other schematic device, may be either the beginning of sentence building by the pupil, or an end in itself, pursued by hunch, imitation, and desperation.

In ideal classroom diagramming, the pupil will experience the pleasure of logical analysis; for diagramming, like geometry, requires clarity of premise, mastery of axioms, and logic of conclusion. On the other hand, unless care be taken that the pupil master each step before the class advances ahead of him, the weaker pupils will lose initiative, and, worst of all, confidence in their ability to master the problems involved.

The use of diagramming has for many teachers and pupils these specific values:

1. The weaker the pupil, the greater the need for a visual aid. Diagramming offers at least some kind of a picture, a map, a chart of difficult language abstractions.

2. In a diagram the pupil thinks of each word in relation to the sentence. When the pupil diagrams "I fell down" and "The dog

ran down the street," he has a chance to see how parts of speech change with function.⁹

3. The placing of each word in a diagram represents ideally a decision in terms of grammatical principle. Pupils should be encouraged to omit words rather than guess.

4. Boys and girls like this exactness of thought and the visual picture of each decision in relation to the sentence. Each decision is represented by a physical movement which is conducive to association.

5. Learning is cumulative. Each set of sentences to be diagrammed may contain all the principles thus far represented.

6. For each sentence diagrammed a pupil may be asked to write and diagram a sentence similar in structure and equally intense in diction.

On the other hand, the use of diagramming, like any method, is accompanied by dangers and limitations. The first danger is allowing any pupils to proceed to more difficult work before they have mastered the fundamentals. In the long run it is preferable to hold the whole class back (allowing the better students to go ahead on reading or creative projects) until the slowest pupils have gained assurance in the fundamentals.

A second danger that has frequently been mentioned is the diagramming of involved sentences of impossibly complex or idiomatic construction. To meet this danger, present-day textbook writers reduce their sentences to the simplest elements. When an idiom or a complicated construction creeps into the sentence, it shakes the pupil's self-confidence and presents a hazard to his progress. It is true, of course, that diagramming in its initial stages requires sentences that are sometimes absurdly immature in terms of the pupil's own speech and writing, that is, remote from his actual experience with the language. We must often ask ninth-year pupils to diagram sentences that

⁹ Mr. Charles Fries and his followers seem to have forgotten that the functional analysis, as in his favorite example, "Ship sails today," is an old, familiar principle to the teacher of diagramming.

fourth-grade youngsters may be speaking or writing.

But perhaps the most persistent danger in diagramming is the pupil's lapse into a guessing attitude, losing the power of thoughtful and tentative decisions. For this reason it is a wise procedure to require ruled lines in pencil and written words in ink, also to put a heavy penalty on one word wrong but no penalty at all on a word omitted. Another way to slow the student's pace and force attention to individual problems is to require, for each sentence diagrammed, a diagrammed sentence of the pupil's own invention. When a sentence exactly parallel in structure but different in diction is required, the pupil unites analysis of some one else's sentence with the composition and diagramming of his own.

A constructive use of diagramming may be summarized by the following beginning steps in instructing, let us say, a ninth-grade class:

1. Pupils diagram sentences containing only adjectives, nouns, and single-word verbs.

Example: A full moon shone.

2. Pupils make up similar sentences.

Example: A big boy dived.

3. Pupils diagram their own sentences.

4. Pupils diagram sentences with nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

Example: Slowly the big bomber took off.

5. Pupils make up similar sentences with the same structure but different words.

Example: Suddenly the robin flew away.

6. Pupils diagram their own sentences.

7. Pupils vary the structure of their own sentences, shifting adverbs to various positions.

Examples: The robin suddenly flew away.

Suddenly away flew the robin.

8. New problem: Diagramming prepositional phrases.

Example: The wind howled fiercely across the plain.

9. Pupils compose their own sentences with prepositional phrases, adjectives, adverbs, nouns, and single-word verbs.

Example: The clouds scurried wildly across the sky.

10. Pupils diagram their own sentences.

11. Pupils manipulate their own sentences.

Examples: Wildly the clouds scurried across the sky.

Across the sky the clouds scurried wildly.

Used in this way, as the beginning and not the end of a language mastery process, with each step reinforced by the pupil's creative action in composing and manipulating his own sentence, diagramming can be a satisfying means not only to correctness in speech, but also to the pupil's skill in exploring new riches of sentence structure.

Unless and until conclusive research shows a more effectual means of teaching grammar than diagrammatic visualization, those teachers who prefer diagramming should trust their own classroom experience, speaking their minds and going their way undeterred by the present casual judgments of some educational theoreticians.



Double-Period Hazards

The double-period plan is not without its disadvantages. There is temptation for the English major to teach English whenever time permits, and neglect social studies. The social-studies expert may welcome too heartily the opportunity to bear down on a given topic and dismiss certain English activities as trivial or unimportant. Over-emphasis on

correlation of subject matter may dull interest. The responsibility is upon the administrator to decide where the double period will be of most value in the school and which teachers are best qualified for handling the double-period assignment.—LUCILLE SIMNEY in *California Journal of Secondary Education*.

The NLRB in ACTION

in our PD Economics Unit

By
ANITA DOERING

UNDER ORDINARY teaching methods, problems of democracy units can remain rather theoretical and vague for many students. One way of bringing such subject matter home to the students is to get them personally involved in the problems.

For example, in my PD course there is a unit on economics—specifically, the Wagner Labor Relations Act. As a firm believer in the “learn by doing” process, I employed role-playing for this unit, and asked the class whether they would like to work out some actual case studies. Interest and enthusiasm ran high.

The class selected three members to serve on a National Labor Relations Board. Of course, it was their job to be well informed about local labor conditions as well as to be versed in the law and its implications. The assignment now was self motivated. None of the three members on our NLRB wished his classmates to find him wanting in information or unable to make a judicious decision; so each did considerable “boning” up on the facts.

I had already checked with our librarian on the available material, and she in turn had stocked a special shelf with books, magazines articles, pamphlets, graphs—all pertinent to our unit. The assignment was made in the latter part of the week so the pupils would have the week-end to do their research.

The next step was to get five or six students to volunteer to assume the roles of factory laborers, each with bitter grievances against his employer—blaming all his difficulties on him, thinking he or she had been discriminated against. Here is where I held my breath. Our school public belong largely to the laboring class, and sometimes emotions run pretty high. Each pupil either had experienced discrimination in his own family or knew a friend who, in his opinion, had been discriminated against for one reason or another. Discrimination had blocked his way toward promotion or even had cost him his job. Therefore, it was easy to get volunteers to play such roles as the Negro, the Jew, the Ex-Convict, the Foreign Born, the Disabled, and the Aged.

The ideal situation is for pupils to plan their own units, even to choosing their own topics, but I think every teacher does some finagling in order to get a class interested in some particular subject, and the right people in the key positions. If the finagling is handled wisely, pupils will, I believe, accept the subject with enthusiastic acclaim—in fact, declare it was their own brain child.

We now were ready for real cases. Each member thought through his or her own case step by step. Some cited actual cases in the community; other cases, of course, were

EDITOR'S NOTE

Miss Doering is aware that much of the materials in such social-studies courses as Problems of Democracy is general and theoretical. She says she employs a variety of “tricks of the trade” to make the subject matter of the units more specific and real to the students—for instance, getting the students “personally involved” in the problem at hand. She teaches in Upper Moreland High School, Willow Grove, Pa.

purely fictitious. Each one kept his grievances to himself until he was called in before the NLRB. Then he had a chance to cite his case and to state wherein he felt he had been discriminated against. It was a bit difficult to get pupils to play the role of the employer. For in each case, the employer does not know the nature of the complaint that his employee is going to lay before the NLRB.

Here the teacher has a double check. First, he can note those pupils who have really gained from the lesson, and are able to make judicious applications. Second, and even more important, he learns wherein his own teaching has taken root, or whether the class has only superficial knowledge of the whole question.

Our next step after hearing grievances and the answer by the employer is for the NLRB to go into action. There are, of course, the three means: reconciliation,

mediation, and—if both fail—arbitration. Sometimes discussions grow heated. I sit there as tempers get on edge, and I say to myself, why did I ever get into this? Yet, I think boys and girls must have the opportunity to face life as they are going to find it. If in the classroom we can let them enact life's problems under supervision and guidance, they will be better prepared when they leave school.

The class evaluation on each case may bring forth additional controversy. One member of the group may disagree with the action of the NLRB, thinking that they might have been able to settle the dispute by mediation if they had been less arbitrary. Then again there are those who may disagree with the action of the employer. Each one must be permitted opportunity to voice his or her opinion. For what better way have we to teach democracy than to let the pupils see it with all its implications?



Recently They Said:

Fleas and Hornets

David Harum, that homespun American philosopher, observed that a few fleas are good for a dog because they keep him from brooding on what a good dog he is. From this point of view people working in public education feel that there is little chance for undue complacency on their part, for they are attacked, not only by a few fleas, but by a swarm of yellow jackets as well.—HOLLIS L. CASWELL in *Teachers College Record*.

How Silly Can You Get?

On our desk is the November 14 issue of "Reveille to Wake Up America," published by the Englewood, N. J., Anti-Communist League. We find it incredible reading.

In two short pages it rolls into one red-bound package the P.T.A.'s ("It is said that to gain admission into certain P.T.A. meetings, you have to say, 'Joe sent me.'"); Englewood itself ("This community's reputation as a focal point of Communist-front activity is nationally known."); Roy E. Larsen, *Time Magazine*, *Life*, the National Citizen's Commission for the Public Schools; Arthur D. Morse

and *McCall's Magazine*, Ben Fine of the *New York Times*, the *Bergen (N. J.) Press*, and the *Englewood Press-Journal*; and finally, of all things, community centers ("Seeing them, one can't help but think of the Communes (Kolkhozes) of Russia").

We know some of our friends will take exception to this little effort to publicize "Reveille." Sincerely, however, we wish it could reach a wider audience. Many good citizens, hearing charges at second hand, honestly wonder whether there is anything in them. "Reveille" would reassure them, since the only possible comment on it is, "How silly can you get?"—EDITORIAL in *New Jersey Educational Review*.

Student MC's

"Eight years ago we began to appraise student masters of ceremonies at school assemblies and public programs, rating each under one of five headings. Here is today's score: "Excellent"—4; "Good"—7; "Fair"—10; "Poor"—24; "Lousy"—18. We are willing to gamble a cross section of our neck that nearly all of those in the bottom two, and several of those in the middle ratings, made no special preparation for their responsibilities.—EDITORIAL in *School Activities*.

Problems of New Members of the **COLLEGE FACULTY**

By ROBERT O. STRIPLING

DURING THE PAST several years a number of studies have been made of the problems faced by college faculty members in general. However, little attention has been given to the personal, social, and professional problems of new college faculty members.

In developing a study relating to preparation for college teaching, Kidd asked 518 college faculty members affiliated with institutions in various parts of the country to indicate whether or not eleven selected problems had caused them difficulty during their first year of teaching.¹ These problems, with the percentages of the total group indicating that the problems had caused them difficulty, were:

(1) Lack of preparation for college teaching, 50.4 per cent; (2) evaluation of student performance, 35.5 per cent; (3) stimulating student thinking, 31.2 per cent; (4) getting students to relate material being taught to current problems and situations, 29.1 per cent (5) organizing and presenting subjects within the ability range of students, 27.8 per cent; (6) developing student interest, 19.1 per cent; (7) relating subject matter being taught to other areas of knowledge, 18.2 per cent; (8) difficulties due to lack of administrative understanding of teaching problems, 13.4 per cent; (10) understanding needs and objectives of students, 11.8 per cent; and (11) developing proper student-teacher relations, 9.8 per cent.

Kidd provided space on his questionnaire for the 518 faculty members to list other

problems that had caused them difficulty during their first year of college teaching. The additional problems which were listed by this report, with the frequency of listing, were:

(1) Heavy teaching load, 2.9 per cent; (2) lack of physical facilities, 2.0 per cent; (3) lack of preparation in subject field, 1.8 per cent; and (4) lack of training for college teaching, 0.7 per cent.

Kidd stated that "it is probable that these four problems . . . would have been checked by a greater percentage of teachers if they had been written on the questionnaire."

A recent study completed by the author asked eighty-six college faculty members who had been in their present positions for not over three years to rank fifty selected personal, social, and professional problems according to the degree of difficulty they caused during the teacher's first year of employment in his present position. The respondents were requested to answer for each problem on the checksheet by marking one of five possible answers, which were: (1) no difficulty, (2) slight difficulty, (3) moderate difficulty, (4) great difficulty, and (5) does not apply in my case.

Of course there is no standard common to all faculty members. For example, an experience by one faculty member might cause him to check a particular problem as having caused slight difficulty in his adjustment to his new position, while a very similar experience might cause another faculty member to check the problem as having caused him great difficulty. However, since the purpose of the research was to determine the problems that are frequently encountered by new faculty members and the degree of

¹ Rex C. Kidd, "The Improvement of the Pre-Service Education of Undergraduate College Teachers." Unpublished Doctor of Education Dissertation, University of Florida, Gainesville, Fla., 1951, p. 136.

difficulty caused by them, it seemed more important to learn how a number of new faculty members actually felt about the problems rather than have them attempt to evaluate each problem by some preconceived standard.

The eighty-six faculty members cooperating in the study were employed in seventy-nine institutions of higher learning in thirty-one states, representing every section of the country. Twenty, or 23.2 per cent of the group, were affiliated with divisions of education in their respective institutions; forty, or 46.5 per cent, were in arts and science; and the remainder were somewhat evenly distributed among divisions of athletics, business administration, engineering, extension, nursing, pharmacy, and student personnel. Only 4.6 per cent of the group held the rank of full professor and the same per cent held the rank of associate professor. There were 83.3 per cent of the group in the age range of twenty-five to thirty-nine. Six per cent were younger, being in the age range of twenty to twenty-four, and six per cent were between forty and fifty-four. The remaining 4.7 per cent did not give their age.

Because of the smallness of the sample in comparison to the total number of new college faculty members as defined by the study, no claim is made that the sample is representative of all new college faculty members. However, since the eighty-six faculty members were from seventy-nine different institutions in thirty-one different states, it seemed that their responses to the fifty items on the check list might be significant. Table I reveals that 50 per cent or more of the group reported difficulty with nineteen of the problems and that on only two problems (19, 20) did less than one-fourth of the group report difficulty.

Table I also reveals the average degree of difficulty that the group experienced with each problem. This was obtained by multiplying the "Slight" responses by one; the "Moderate" responses by two; and the

"Great" responses by three. The products obtained were added and the sum divided by the number indicating that the problem applied to them. The resulting indices of from .00 to 3.00 were reported by using a 15-point scale with each of the points representing a fifteenth of the distance from .00 to 3.00. On only three of the fifty problems did the average degree of difficulty expressed reach a scale point as high as 8. This reveals that the degree of difficulty that the problems caused the group as a whole was not too great. However, a further breakdown of the data indicated that individual faculty members in all sizes of institutions in all parts of the country had expressed great difficulty with most of the problems.

This seems to indicate the need for all institutions of higher learning to study carefully the types and kinds of problems being faced by their new faculty members. For example, in spite of the relatively low rating given to problem Number 2, "Teaching assignment outside of your field of preparation," it was noted that a new faculty member in a large university who was rated "outstanding" by his dean, indicated that this problem had caused him great difficulty and had resulted in much unhappiness on his part. The faculty member stated:

My first days at the institution of which I am now a staff member were very trying ones because of the uncertainty caused by teaching in an area quite beyond my experience. No teacher should be expected to plunge into a heavy schedule of work without seeing clearly how this work fits into the total institutional program.

EDITOR'S NOTE

So many secondary-school people seem to be ambitious to get on a college faculty that we suspect this report will be studied widely by CLEARING HOUSE readers. Dr. Stripling is associate professor of education in the College of Education, University of Florida, at Gainesville.

One of the problems causing the greatest degree of difficulty to the group was Number 22, "Understanding policies relating to grading students." Typical of the remarks made by a number of the group about this problem is the following:

The problem of grading students caused me more difficulty than anything else. I attempted to get advice, but everyone that I talked to, including the dean, was very evasive.

The two other problems which rated 8 on the point scale also are concerned with over-all institutional policies and administration. They are Number 28, "Understanding institutional legislative organization," and Number 29, "Understanding faculty-trustee relationship." These problems, it would seem, might cause more difficulty to the faculty members from large institutions where new faculty members with low professional rank, as was the case with the majority of those included in this sample, had little opportunity to learn anything about the over-all legislative organization of the institution. Such matters would be the concern of administrators and senior members of the faculty. However, the relatively high degree of difficulty expressed over these problems indicated that they must be of concern to new faculty members from all sizes of institutions.

The question is raised as to how much it might increase the over-all effectiveness of the new college faculty members, if they were given an opportunity to learn more about the over-all administrative organization of the institution in which they are employed. Such information might be given to them during personal conferences in small institutions where there are relatively few new faculty members each year. Large institutions could give such information through discussions by the dean of the university or other administrative officials. Such discussions might be held as a part of the fall planning conferences, or perhaps they would be more valuable later in the school year after the new faculty members have

begun to get somewhat better acquainted with the more immediate details of their work.

The problem on which the largest percentage of the eighty-six faculty members expressed some degree of difficulty is again related to the over-all administrative operations of institutions. It is Problem 7, "Learning administrative routine of the college or university." Many devices such as faculty handbooks, discussions, and personal conferences can be used to help new faculty members overcome this problem, which it seems would be directly related to their effectiveness as members of an institution's staff.

A problem relating to the aims and objectives of the institution as a whole was rated high among the fifty problems causing difficulty to the group. It is Problem 23, "Getting a clear and workable knowledge of the philosophy of the institution."

The answer to this problem cannot be found in a speech or in a two-hour discussion period: It is concerned with the new faculty member's ability to relate himself to the total on-going program of the institution, thus going beyond the point of merely having a knowledge of the institution's aims and objectives such as might be obtained through a speech or by reading a mimeographed copy of the institution's philosophy. Rather, the answer to this problem must be given on a long-term basis. Preliminary steps might be such activities as talks, discussion groups, and personal conferences with colleagues. The ultimate solution is, of course, dependent upon working relationships established between the members of the entire faculty and the student body.

"Acquiring adequate secretarial help" (4) was another problem causing relative difficulty to the eighty-six new faculty members. Several were critical of the quality of secretarial help supplied them. One stated:

When I was offered my present position, I was told that I would be supplied secretarial help three

afternoons a week. Upon reporting to work, I was amazed to discover that my help was an undergraduate assistant who knew less about typing than I and who had completed only one semester of shorthand with a grade of average!

Others were critical of the availability of secretarial help. One stated:

I was told that I would share the time of a secretary with two full professors. I found that this meant that I could use her when they didn't need her. My attempt to get a schedule set up was politely ignored.

Another younger new faculty member stated:

I have found that the assignment of part of a secretary's time to a new faculty member, particularly one of lower rank, does not necessarily mean that the faculty member will actually get to use the secretary that much time. Senior faculty members seem to have a way of overlooking such arrangements even after they have been called to their attention.

In most cases the problem of unsatisfactory secretarial assistance probably stems from the lack of an adequate amount of secretarial help throughout the division or institution. Expectations about such things as secretarial help as well as office space (3), office supplies (5), and auxiliary teaching materials (25) should be discussed thoroughly with the new faculty member before employment. Specific agreements covering such matters may be put in writing to avoid misunderstandings arising later.

The problem of getting access to needed auxiliary teaching materials (25) caused new faculty members from all sizes of institutions difficulty. One stated:

The faculty member who teaches children's science in our college has a good bit of audio-visual aids materials which he has managed to get the dean to buy. However, no policies have been adopted regarding the use of this equipment and other faculty members have been unable to use it. Attempts to get the dean to do something about the situation have failed.

Other problems relating to the accessibility of auxiliary teaching materials are caused by their lack. One faculty member

from a college of education stated:

We talk to our students about the value of such materials as aids to good teaching but because of the lack of these materials we cannot demonstrate their use. Consequently, the students leave our institution with little or no knowledge concerning how to use these "valuable teaching aids." To me, this is the weakest feature of our teacher-training program.

The 1949 National Conference on Higher Education report made this statement on the importance of institutions making it relatively easy for staff members to acquire such things as clerical assistance and office supplies:

... making available the physical facilities, adequate clerical assistance, proper equipment, and similar aids to efficiency enables a faculty member to devote his full energies to professional duties; this contributes to his morale and thus to his educational accomplishments. Providing such aid also places in proper perspective the kinds of things faculty members can do more efficiently. . . .³

"Understanding policies regarding leave and travel expenses to professional meetings" (26) caused this group a relatively high degree of difficulty. Such a difficulty may arise because there is no policy covering these matters. On the other hand, one faculty member stated:

We have a policy. The policy is that senior faculty members get the travel money!

The inability to gain information about students from personnel records (24) caused great difficulty to some of the group. A faculty member from a large institution stated:

In our college, the assistant dean is in charge of student personnel problems and all of the records are in his office. If a faculty member attempts to get information about students from these records, he is looked upon with suspicion. The dean always manages to say, "If any of your students are having problems, send them to me." Some of us feel like telling him that if they wanted to see him, they would come to him.

Others expressed concern over the lack of

³ National Conference on Higher Education, *Current Trends in Higher Education*, 1949, p. 117.

records. This is somewhat typical of several remarks:

In our college "student records" consist of the past grades of students. No attempt has been made to gain personal data about any of the students.

The degree of difficulty expressed over this problem by the group indicates a rather strong interest. Perhaps one way to get new college faculty members interested in a program of in-service professional development would be to provide opportunities for them to study their students.

In order to determine to what extent, if any, the size of the institution might have affected the degree of difficulty that each problem caused the new faculty members, the institutions were classified into three groups according to the total number of faculty members employed. These groups were: (1) institutions with fewer than fifty faculty members, (2) those with between fifty and two hundred faculty members, and (3) those with over two hundred faculty members. It was found that of the eighty-six new faculty members filling out the check-sheet, twenty-three were employed in smaller institutions, thirty-four in those of medium size, and twenty-nine in the larger ones.

Contrary to what might be expected, the smallness of the institution does not seem to simplify in the minds of new faculty members the complexity of administrative organization or the purposes of the educational program offered by the institution. There seems to be a need for more opportunities to discuss these features of institutional programs. In commenting on this problem one faculty member stated:

Our institution is small and it would seem that it would be easy to gain an understanding of administration procedures, but the contrary is true. It seems that most procedures are "filed" in the heads of the president, the dean of the college, and the department heads; nothing is written down to guide the new faculty member. I found that oftentimes none of these people was available to answer little questions that were so important to me at the time. Written procedures about such things as stu-

dent grading, absentee reports, method used in reporting failing students, and other faculty responsibilities would have helped so much.

This remark indicates the need for small institutions to consider the effectiveness of their procedures for giving information on administrative routine to new faculty members. However, on certain of the problems, the size of the institution seemed to have some effect.

Teaching assignments outside of their field of preparation caused those faculty members from the small institutions the most difficulty, those from medium-size institutions less difficulty, and those from the large institutions the least difficulty. Also, it was noted that the problem of establishing satisfactory relationships with faculty members in other departments caused those from the large institutions the most difficulty. Too, it seems that institutional demands on the new faculty members' time might vary according to the size of the institution. For example, the new faculty members from the small institutions seemed to have more difficulty in fulfilling expectations concerning total responsibilities than was true of those faculty members from the medium-size or large institutions.

Past college teaching experience seemed to have little effect on the degree of difficulty the fifty problems caused the new faculty members. On the other hand, the findings indicate that the division within an institution with which a new faculty member is affiliated may have some effect on the degree of difficulty caused by certain of the problems. Too, it seems that age might affect the degree of difficulty caused by certain of the problems faced by a new college faculty member. For example, the younger half of the eighty-six new faculty members participating in this study seemed to have more difficulty with the fifty problems than was true of the older half.

This study has revealed that although such factors as the size of the institution, the age of the new faculty member, and the

TABLE I
PROBLEMS OF NEW COLLEGE FACULTY MEMBERS AND THE DEGREE OF
DIFFICULTY CAUSED BY THESE PROBLEMS

Problem	Per cent having some degree of difficulty with problem	Average degree of difficulty experienced by group on a 15 point scale*
1. Understanding areas you were expected to cover in your course work.	45.4	4
2. Teaching assignment outside of your field of preparation.	31.4	5
3. Acquiring adequate office space.	47.6	5
4. Acquiring adequate secretarial help.	62.8	7
5. Acquiring adequate office supplies.	37.2	4
6. Learning departmental administrative routine.	53.5	5
7. Learning administrative routine of college or university.	74.4	7
8. Establishing good working relationship with your department head.	26.7	3
9. Establishing good working relationship with other members of department.	33.7	3
10. Establishing good working relationship with faculty members outside of your department.	52.3	5
11. Establishing good relationship with your dean.	26.0	3
12. Establishing good working relationship with your president.	34.8	4
13. Understanding policies regarding promotion and salary increases.	59.3	7
14. Understanding policies regarding sick leave.	40.6	4
15. Understanding policies regarding retirement.	39.5	4
16. Understanding policies regarding tenure.	51.2	6
17. Understanding policies regarding academic freedom.	32.5	3
18. Understanding policies regarding research.	31.4	4
19. Getting a conference when needed with your dean.	23.3	2
20. Getting a conference when needed with your department head.	19.8	2
21. Getting help in the improvement of your own teaching ...	55.8	6
22. Understanding policies relating to grading standards.	69.8	8
23. Getting a clear and workable knowledge of the philosophy of the institution.	72.1	7
24. Gaining adequate information about students from personnel records.	62.8	6
25. Getting access to needed auxiliary teaching materials, such as charts, maps, moving pictures.	61.6	6
26. Understanding policy regarding leave and travel expenses to professional meetings.	59.3	6
27. Feeling of inadequate preparation for college teaching.	34.1	4
28. Understanding institutional legislative organization.	69.7	8
29. Understanding faculty-trustee relationships.	59.4	8
30. Developing a satisfactory and effective working relationship with students.	26.8	2
31. Fulfilling expectations regarding committee responsibilities. ...	45.3	4
32. Fulfilling expectations regarding research activities.	30.2	6
33. Fulfilling expectations regarding student counseling assignment.	39.5	5
34. Fulfilling expectations regarding teaching load.	43.0	4
35. Fulfilling expectations regarding club advisory work.	31.3	4
36. Fulfilling expectations regarding community obligations. ...	36.1	4
37. Fulfilling expectations regarding total amount of responsibilities.	65.2	5
38. Gaining working relationships with public-school officials.	31.4	5
39. Understanding how your course work relates to the total curriculum of your division or department.	26.7	3
40. Understanding how your course work relates to the total curriculum of the institution.	45.3	4
41. Having opportunities to engage in curriculum planning.	50.0	6
42. Securing adequate living accommodations.	50.0	6
43. Establishing satisfactory social relations with faculty families.	50.0	5
44. Establishing satisfactory social relations with people of community.	50.0	6
45. Finding satisfying recreational outlets for yourself.	44.2	4
46. Finding satisfying recreational outlets for your family.	30.3	4
47. Fulfilling expectations regarding political behavior.	25.6	3
48. Fulfilling expectations regarding economic behavior.	33.7	3
49. Fulfilling expectations regarding personal behavior.	25.5	2
50. Affording entertainment and other activities that appear to be usual for your colleagues.	45.3	4

* Average degrees of difficulty were determined by multiplying "Slight" response by one; "Moderate" by two; and "Great" by three. The products obtained were added and the sum divided by the number indicating that the problem applied to them. The resulting indices of from .00 to 3.00 are reported by using a 15-point scale with each of the points representing $1/15$ of the distance from .00 to 3.00.

division of the institution with which he may be affiliated may have some influence on the type of problem faced, they do not safeguard the new college faculty member against facing personal, social, and professional problems with which he needs assistance. There seems to be a need for institu-

tions, and divisions within institutions, to gain the cooperation of their own new faculty members in identifying the problems causing them the most difficulty and to develop orientation practices as well as policies and procedures that will help with these problems.



Shall We Have Freedom to Learn in U. S. Classrooms?

Never before have we come so near to forgetting the principle on which our judicial system is founded—that a man is innocent until he is proved guilty. In place of this principle, we have hysterically acquiesced in one that is diametrically opposed to it, namely—guilt by association.

The principle of guilt by association has been extended into the realm of ideas, so that a person who favors social or economic reforms intended for the common welfare or that of an underprivileged group, particularly if he also favors efforts to negotiate the differences between the East and the West, is likely to be considered a Communist or a Communist sympathizer. The resulting restrictions on freedom of thought and freedom of conscience have pressed especially hard on members of the teaching profession, and particularly on teachers of the social studies.

These restrictions are, in part, spelled out in recent laws, but mainly take the form of administrative rulings and of demands from various organizations that anyone guilty of unorthodox beliefs (usually described by these groups as "un-American," "leftist," "collectivist," "atheistic," or "pro-Communist") be ousted from teaching. There is a mounting pressure for orthodoxy in nearly all areas of thinking—a pressure that has already sharply curtailed the freedom of young people to learn.

The pressure for political, economic, and religious orthodoxy is frequently directed against textbooks and periodicals prepared for classroom use. A large proportion of the social-studies textbooks and classroom magazines now in use, including many that have been used in all parts of the country and that have been tested in the classroom for a decade or more, have been denounced by one organization or another on the ground that the material in question contains ideas that are contrary to the

interests or opinions of the organization making the complaint.

This "censorship by pressure group" is not new but is becoming increasingly frequent. It greatly hampers the efforts of writers and publishers to supply textbooks and classroom magazines that deal with genuine issues in a way that is broadly informative and intellectually stimulating. It forces writers and publishers to "water down" passages that deal with a controversial matter until, too often, most of the significance is lost. Censorship by pressure group has become a major threat to the right of the student to learn. It not only makes textbooks and classroom magazines insipid, but it causes teachers great anxiety in their selection and use. A teacher never knows when he may be suspected of disloyal tendencies on account of a book or magazine he has selected for his classroom.

The danger of "censorship by pressure group" is also felt by a teacher when he recommends supplementary readings, or invites a guest speaker to his classroom, or suggests that his students attend a lecture or a play on a controversial theme. The risk of censorship is still greater should he sponsor or advise a student club which is concerned with the live issues of the day. Security lies in avoiding the serious consideration of local, national, or international problems.

Yet the democratic way of life depends for its very existence upon the free interchange of ideas. *It is the only form of government which provides for the peaceful accommodation of differences. . . .*

If young people are to learn to participate in the democratic process, they must have ample opportunity to practice it. The school, more than any other institution, exists to provide this opportunity. Shall we make it possible for the school to do so by protecting that freedom of inquiry which is the basis of the right to learn?—RUTH WOOD GAVIAN in *Social Education*.

Tape Recorder Sparks Revival of **THE CLASSICS**

By
ADONA R. SICK

IT'S TIME we did something besides just talk to our college-preparatory students about reading classics," exclaimed an English teacher as she entered the library and dropped her tense, exhausted body upon a straightbacked library chair. The hard chair seemed to give added support to her weary body, relaxation to her muscles, and release to the tension of her nerves.

"That's exactly the way I feel too." But as I uttered that statement of perfect agreement, I experienced a sickening thud of reality—a feeling that I was much below par in relation to my highest privilege—giving reading guidance to college-preparatory students.

During the next half-hour we tried to objectify our aims and convert ourselves to the idea that our students could be motivated to the point of receiving real joy and profit from reading classics. We considered the barriers of words, style, convention, and length; the fact that readers must see both the people and the ideas; the tastes of our students, such as a taste for the emotion of surprise and the taste for the emotion of recognition; the ability of the reader to pass through the emotional experiences, not only of the author, but also of his characters. We next considered the special qualifications of our students, the quality and extent of their reading, their alertness of senses, mind, and imagination.

Having once convinced ourselves of the possibility of a successful reading venture, we felt suddenly a wave of growing enthusiasm and decided to give the problem more serious thought.

A week later, we had our second conference. This time our *problem* was clear-

cut: Our students were not reading the classics and had no desire to do so, as indicated by the following findings:

1. A careful check of library reading cards revealed that few classics were read.
2. Casual recommendations of classics by the librarian had met with indifference from the students, as evidenced by the following remarks: Print too small. Doesn't look interesting. Book too large.
3. Conversations with students had given conclusive evidence that the word *Classic* (spoken or inferred) carried with it a prejudice—something to be avoided.
4. Few students ever suspected that classics would introduce them to the contemporary life of other countries, or present colorful historical epochs.

It took us but a few minutes to crystalize our aims in dealing with the problem:

1. To stimulate in students a desire to seek enjoyment in the classics.
2. To help the student understand that reading a classic properly is real work—not complete relaxation.
3. To guide the student into the enjoyment of the story element and also the meaning and purpose of the book.
4. To give emphasis to the fact that reward will be proportionate to effort and therefore reading should be done alertly and thoughtfully.
5. To suggest that classics usually help us understand ourselves as we come to understand the world in which we live.

We took immediate steps to solve the problem, and two weeks later we invited the class to come to the library and listen to a tape recording. The library atmosphere provided an intimate, informal class period, designed to suggest reading guidance to students desirous of developing a discriminating taste in the selection of classical reading. An air of expectancy was evident as the librarian introduced the program. The stu-

EDITOR'S NOTE

Recommendations in English class and library that college-preparatory students of Union-Endicott Senior High School, Endicott, N.Y., read the classics were falling upon deaf ears. Withdrawal of classics from the library was rare, the college-bound students were prejudiced against them. That was the state of affairs when the librarian and an English teacher got together and prepared a tape-recorded promotion campaign that apparently sold the product. Miss Sick is the librarian.

dents were not asked to read the classics, but were requested to listen to and give a written evaluation of the twenty-minute tape recording, which began in this manner:

Today I want to talk to you for a little while about the profits and pleasures that may be derived from reading the classics.

Our high-school library has recently acquired about twenty great illustrated classics—a new series of the world's great novels, printed in attractive, readable type, and illustrated with photogravure reproductions of drawings by famous contemporary artists, or of the characters and scenes done with the novels. These books are on display and I hope you will enjoy looking them over.

Today we shall confine our thinking to one of the greatest English novelists and one of the most popular writers of his time, Charles Dickens.

On a morning of 1841 a crowd of people are assembled on a pier of New York harbor. They are eagerly awaiting the arrival of a tall sailing ship just in from England, and being towed to the pier-head. There is no ocean cable, and she brings the latest news. What are the people shouting, as soon as voices can reach the ship?

"Is Little Nell dead?"

Little Nell is the child heroine in a serial story called *Old Curiosity Shop*, of which the latest issue is on the ship. And so eager are the people to learn how the story comes out that they cannot wait until the ship docks. Of all the novels of Dickens, *The Old Curiosity Shop* is the one which deals least with social reform.

The recording continued to introduce famous Dickens characters, such as "the yellowing bridal-gowned Miss Havisham;

fanatically non-committal Jaggers; fearsome Mrs. Joe; trainer of thieves, Fagan; professional murderer Bill Sikes; kindly old Mr. Brownlow; the gay Job Trotter; poor Oliver Twist; and swaggering Bob Sawyer.

During the recording the attention grew into an intense interest punctuated now and then by a ripple of laughter and a wise look indicating a desire to meet personally some of the book characters mentioned in the recording.

One Hundred Per Cent Participation

With dispatch and pleasure, the members of the class began to look over the book display. They read the book blurbs, asked questions, discussed authors, and gradually selected books. We made no attempt to "push" books, but we did make a special effort to have a personal interview with each student. Student reactions to the recording gave us suggestions for further work. Some of these reactions follow:

"I thought the record was very helpful. I am going to try to read as many of them as I possibly can. I wish to thank Miss Sick for giving me a chance to get acquainted with these books. I think that more of these records should be made and played for the students."

"I think the record was helpful as far as giving information about Dickens and his works, and it has given me a desire to look into Dickens' works, but I believe if choice books from all authors are discussed it would give a student a more rounded field."

"It was very helpful because it gave a brief summary of what the books contained. This is a help to the reader who is looking for a good book which he thinks he would enjoy. More records of this kind will bring more readers toward reading more books."

"The record was very helpful to me in acquainting me with Charles Dickens and his works. However, I was under the impression, when the record first started, that the speaker was going to give a résumé of more than one author."

"I think that the record was worked on enough and does not need further improvement."

"The narrator has a very smooth speaking voice. She uses just the right tone of voice to express her ideas and transport them to the minds of her audience."

A Variety of Reports

The reports of classics read were stimulating, entertaining, and creative achievements which brought surprises, revealed hidden talents, stimulated thinking, and conclusively revealed that reading the classics can be an enjoyable activity with high-school students.

The oral reports varied in length from twenty minutes to two hours. Parts of reports were presented at different times. Dramatizations and brief excerpts to show an author's style or give the word-picture description of a character were common forms followed by the reporters. One student did a series of readings interspersed with running comment.

Group Evaluation of Reports

The last fifteen minutes of each book-report period were given over to group evaluation. A student chairman presided and the sessions served to:

1. Deepen the class insight into group processes.
2. Develop plans for further reports.
3. Develop interesting group observations.
4. Create a desire for greater productivity of creative and unique reports.

Subsequent student reactions were:

1. A changed attitude—akin to respect for classics.
2. A bit of reflective thinking as to value of classics.
3. A willingness to try "at least one more."

What Makes a Classic Come to Life?

There are many contributing factors in the success of such a project:

1. See that an abundance of attractive material is available.
2. The teacher and the librarian must be enthusiastic; they will have to "catch fire" before the students do!
3. Cultivate the ability to capitalize upon the students' interest.
4. Strive always and forever for variety in presentations.
5. Plan carefully the informal presentation of classics.
6. Polish up your imagination.
7. Joyfully spend "hours and hours" of extra time in personal interviews with the students. Nothing pays higher dividends.

Our experiment of doing more than talk about reading the classics was a thrilling adventure which proved to us that classics can bring to high-school students an enthusiasm, excitement, exaltation—in short, an acceleration of the feeling that comes with accomplishment.



Political Compromise

Among the things which Americans in general need to understand better is the fact that the result of a political compromise does not set forth the program of anybody in particular. Perhaps no contending group would own it—even as a stepchild. The more complex our society becomes, and hence the more intricate the pattern of relationships among special-interest groups, the more remote the compromise is likely to be from the program that any particular

group considers in line with its interests.

When such groups think of the programs which they advocate as embodying clear statements of the positive good, as most such groups do, they are likely to think of the compromise as a "lesser evil" rather than as a positive or constructive good. It seems likely that this will increasingly be the situation in American political relationships.—HAROLD H. PUNKE in *The Social Studies*.

I CALL THEM DEMONIC DEVICES

By
JOHN M. BRACKEN

I WENT INTO the examination room bubbling over with confidence. As much confidence as a man can have, that is, who is facing a four-hour examination in the broad field of educational sociology. The results of the ordeal would determine whether the Committee on Advanced Graduate Degrees was correct in its original acceptance of my plan for graduate work. Did I have the stuff to warrant further study for the doctoral?

The reason for my light-heartedness was partly confidence in my mastery of the field. After all, I had had the benefit of stimulating lectures from a noted educational sociologist. I had read in the subject until my cortex was bulging with the wisdom of men of the caliber of Kurt Lewin, Gunnar Myrdal, Gordon Allport, and Willard Waller. I had studied hard.

But what really increased the span of my inter-temporal measurements was something else.

How, I had asked myself, was I to digest

all this information? How was I to store away the accumulated knowledge in such organized fashion that necessary parts of it could be plucked at will? How, in other words, was I to assure myself that I could answer the call of the examiner at the drop of a question mark?

The solution, a simple one, was based on the time-honored practice of those who had gone before me. I would use mnemonic devices, or memory aids. These devices were manufactured words, each letter of which stood for a key area of subject matter on which I then could expand for the necessary wordage.

I was, as the saying goes, loaded.

But loaded for what? I had the mnemonic devices down fine. That is, I remembered the words themselves. But breaking them down into their meaningful components was another matter.

A few examples will describe my plight.

My favorite device was "C L E A T." Now, too late, the significance of the letters stands out in horrible clarity. The word itself was a grouping for remembering the objectives of intergroup education. Even now I can run over the connotations in my sleep: "Intergroup education has as its major purpose the creation of a C-operative society, irrespective of race, creed, or other differences. We must have L-eadership in our schools and society to bring about desirable results. We must work for E-limination of prejudice and discrimination toward minority groups. Knowledge obtained must be A-pplied to the teaching of young people in our schools. Intergroup education involves the application of T-echiniques of the

EDITOR'S NOTE

Mr. Bracken recently had a harrowing experience in the use of mnemonic devices, upon the occasion of a critically important four-hour examination. Now he comes out flatly (a) against ever trying to use mnemonics again; (b) in favor of a better set of devices than he used last time; or (c) for a policy of laissez faire in the whole matter. He has taught in the secondary schools of San Francisco, and is now working on his doctoral degree at Stanford University.

psycho-social sciences to fundamental problems of mankind." Clear as a bell.

Or so I thought. Once I went into the examining room, however, "C L E A T" had lost its original significance. Whether this was due to the oncoming of a certain sport season or stemmed from the failure of the examiner to ask a specific question that the device would help to answer, I do not know.

In any event, the device was to no avail. I wrote 600 words on football uniforms with particular reference to the necessity for sturdy shoes that would grip the ground firmly.

The latest report is that this section of my paper was handed to the department of athletics. I am not doing well in sociology, but it is rumored that I will get an *A* in Football 1.

The remainder of the examination followed the inevitable path of a classical Greek tragedy. Where I should have written intelligently about population changes in the United States ("W A R M"—for Women, Age distributions, Reproductive ratio, and Migration), I expounded brilliantly on climatic conditions in southern California. In retrospect, it occurs to me that I would

have been more realistic at this point to describe the temperature tendencies of the academic seat on which I am sitting insofar as the school of education is concerned.

"P R I M P" should have suggested means that the educator can take to insure a satisfactory program of international education for his schools. Not being able to remember just what the letters stood for, and realizing that a piece on beauty culture would be a little far fetched for even the most understanding of readers, I simply omitted that one altogether.

My experience was not without its lasting benefit, however. I have decided N E V E R to use mnemonic devices at any time in the future. My only doubt now is whether I actually mean that or whether the emphasized word really signifies that I (1) must get some *N*-ew devices, (2) *E*-stablish their relationship with known facts, (3) *V*-erify this relationship by further research, (4) *E*-ndeavor to put them to frequent use, and (5) *R*-eview them frequently.

On second thought, I believe I have made up my mind. Next time, just before the examinations, I plan to read the newspaper comics thoroughly. They will do me just about as much good.



A \$64 Sonnet

By SIGRID RIECK

When we have built this "one world" of our themes
And educators know the answers to
Each nation's pains; when we have leaders who
Are wise and just, and time conceals the schemes
That marred the past; when we have solved extremes
In teaching school, and teachers find the clew
To children's problems, and their own; do you
Believe we'll love this "brain child" of our dreams?
When we have made ideals come true, and find
Defenders of democracy can break
Through feudal walls to conquer hate and fear;
When laws in education are designed
To meet our needs, and peace and love can take
The place of war, will we be happy here?

THOSE TEACHERS!

A Sort of Consumer Survey

By
DOROTHY FITZGERALD

WHAT IS YOUR conception of an ideal high-school teacher?" I asked of a class in written communications in their junior year in high school. They were definite in their answers.

"I like a middle-aged woman teacher," one student boldly stated. "She's not so old that she has one foot in the grave and the other on a banana peeling, nor is she so young that she wants to flirt with all the boys."

Another comment was, "I like a good-looking teacher, so if you get bored, you can look at her." Neatness and orderliness without flashiness were suggested as approved dress.

Many times we think students resent discipline of any description. The typical comment on this topic was, "The teacher should not be too strict or crabby, but students definitely expect him to keep order."

Classroom atmosphere is important to pupils, and they sense the feeling of the

class more quickly than the teacher. "He should have a sense of humor, even when the joke's on him; he should make you feel welcome in his class; be patient, courteous, and interested in your progress."

Although one student arbitrarily suggested, "A teacher should be able to answer any question that comes up about the subject he teaches," another recognized this fallacy by stating, "A teacher need not be a walking encyclopedia. He should be able to point to sources of information and have a basic knowledge of his subject that will enable him to explain it thoroughly to the pupils."

The subject of "teachers' pets" was widely aired. "Since we live in a democracy, everyone should have an equal opportunity to express himself. A teacher who does all the talking isn't fair to his class."

"I've attended a few classes in which the teacher didn't plan his work for his pets."

"Why don't teachers tell us they're going to give a test?" wailed one who was always unprepared.

One little girl who had lost her mother expressed appreciation for a teacher friend who would counsel with her about her problems. "She doesn't act as though I were silly to have become involved with these problems, but as if she really wants to help me solve them."

Taking part in school activities, particularly attending sports events and sponsoring parties, was rated high. The quarterback on the football team elucidated, "If I make a touchdown, I want the teacher to tell me the next day he was there and enjoyed seeing that long run." Further, one student

EDITOR'S NOTE

Mrs. Fitzgerald got some frank and perhaps dogmatic answers when she asked a class of 11th-grade students to state their notions of an ideal teacher. Since teachers come in infinite variety, it is reassuring to learn that the students weren't very unanimous in their requirements. While one pupil wanted a pretty, young teacher to look at, for instance, another preferred a middle-aged teacher without reference to looks at all. Mrs. Fitzgerald teaches English and speech in Valley Center, Kan., High School.

continued, "It shouldn't be beneath the dignity of a teacher to cheer at ball games. If he feels like jumping up and down, he shouldn't hesitate to do so."

A teacher is expected to be a respectable citizen of the community. As one student insisted, "He should not come to class with a hangover from the night before."

A young girl who is considering the possibility of a teaching career commented, "I respect a teacher who shows that he likes the profession and is satisfied with his position."

Students appreciate good teachers, I'm convinced. We should try to qualify to the best of our ability.



Modern Report Cards: Fewer Trips to the Woodshed?

Teachers, parents, and pupils periodically share worry about that old bug-a-boo, the traditional report card. Needless to say, regardless of the fairness on the part of the teacher, the report card embarrasses someone, with most of the embarrassment indirectly affecting the person who doesn't deserve it—the classroom teacher. For many years the traditional report card and the trip to the woodshed have been the most widely used method of reporting pupil progress.

Slowly and awkwardly, teachers, supervisors, parents, students, and other persons interested in education, have attempted to revise the traditional report cards. Many revisions have certainly made

pupil progress reporting more efficient and more objective, and in school systems where report cards are considered necessary most of us would agree that the report card to be used throughout the nation's schools this year is a big improvement over the card of twenty years ago.

For instance, the report card now being used in our school system has some 46 items of objective interest or information for the pupil and the parent. In contrast, the report we used a few years ago merely listed the subjects, after which there were appropriate spaces for the traditional marks A, B, C, D, E, etc.—J. WILLIS OWEN in *Michigan Education Journal*.

Chicago Study Shows that Ungraded Pupils Find Job Niche

Former pupils of the ungraded divisions [of Chicago high schools] are now successfully employed in an extremely wide range of jobs, according to a survey of more than two hundred former pupils, recently reported by a "Follow-Up Committee" composed of teachers and principals concerned with the program for educable mentally handicapped pupils.

Many former ungraded pupils were found to be making more than fifty dollars a week. According to Frances A. Mullen, director of the Bureau of Mentally Handicapped Children, half of the total number located are making more than thirty dollars a week. In the remaining half are those still in some type of educational program, those who are housewives, and those in military service. The percentage who are unemployed, or employed at marginal, underpaid jobs, is surprisingly small.

Typical success stories include the veteran who recently purchased his own auto repair shop and the skilled carpenter who has been promoted

steadily during his seven years' employment with one company. Among those with the highest incomes are a furnace man in a steel mill, a construction laborer, and a railroad brakeman.

The majority of these young people may be classified as factory operatives and service workers. They are more likely to be the helper on the truck, although some are truck drivers. They pack powder puffs and they pack cookies; they are welders and assemblers; they are porters, bus boys, and dishwashers. They are employed in hospitals, restaurants, stores, and manufacturing plants.

The contribution of the school to their success, Dr. Mullen believes, lies in the development of reading, arithmetic, spelling, and other academic skills; in the development of social skills and understanding; and in establishing traits of dependability and reliability. Specific job skills, in general, must be learned on the job.—*Educational Progress* (Chicago Public Schools).

Course Trains Leaders for Davis High Activities

By
HOWARD G. SPALDING

THE SUCCESS of a school, especially of its extracurricular program, depends to a very considerable extent upon the quality of its student leadership. Much is done in many schools to help students to choose good leaders. Far less is usually done to prepare potential leaders for leadership and to instruct those chosen for positions of leadership so that they will be able to do their work effectively.

In recognition of this fact, the suggestion was made to the general organization of Davis High School two years ago that a leadership training course be developed. After thorough discussion the idea was approved and a student-faculty committee was formed to work out a plan of action.

The committee soon decided that the success of the plan would depend in large part upon two factors, the composition of the first group of students who would take the course, and the value of the instruction given.

It seemed quite important that teachers and students understand that the course was intended for all students interested in improving their leadership ability but that the first group would have to be limited to about thirty members. This information was given to the school through the school newspaper and the homerooms.

The students to enter the first class were selected by the student members of the committee. Each student member nominated several students from his class, stating the reasons for each nomination in writing. These nominations were reviewed by all of the students on the committee and a suggested list was submitted to the faculty

members, who found that the student recommendations were good in nearly every instance.

The chosen students were then invited to enter the course. Two or three were involved in other activities which prevented their acceptance, but all others undertook the work. These were told that the course would meet after school for six one-hour periods and that any unexcused absence would cause them to be dropped from the course. This rule has been rigidly enforced. The morale of these groups has always been excellent, in part because there has usually been a waiting list of pupils desiring to take the course.

While the organization was being completed a course of study for the work was being prepared. A brief outline, including the principal topics covered at each session follows:

First session. The importance of leadership in developing an alert, effective organization. Illustrations from government, business, and especially from school life. Differences between autocratic and democratic leadership. The qualities of a good democratic leader. Scope of faculty and student responsibility for school leadership. The duties of a leader in organizing, planning, motivating, supervising, and evaluating the work of student groups.

Second session. Principles of organization and selection of personnel. Finding the right person for the right job. How responsibility is shared in a democratic group. The planning process, the characteristics of a good plan and how arrived at.

Third session. Motivation—how people, and especially students, are led to do their best work. An analysis of good and poor motives for extracurricular participation and how good motives can be appealed to. Administration, how a student leader can

keep in touch and guide the work of his organization. Evaluation, advantages of evaluation, and means for securing thoughtful evaluation of an activity.

Fourth session. Conduct of elections. Explanation of provisions of G.O. constitution covering qualifications of officers and conduct of elections. Duties of G.O., homeroom, club, and other officers. Problems involved in getting the best possible candidates, conducting effective campaigns, and managing elections according to good procedures.

Fifth session. Parliamentary procedure. Brief explanation of the importance of parliamentary procedures followed by organization of the class into a council to transact business according to proper procedures. A leaflet, "Simplified Parliamentary Procedures," is given to each member of the class.

Sixth session. Practice of parliamentary procedures through orderly discussion of a school problem of general interest. Evaluation of the course, emphasizing the reasons for evaluation, the value of the course to students taking it and to the school at large. Recommendations for improvement of the course. Following the last session each student submits a written evaluation to the teacher in charge.

The work of developing the course has been widely shared. One teacher¹ has had charge of the organization of the classes and has attended all meetings of the course. The principal has taken charge of the first session each time the course has been offered. Ten teachers have at various times taken responsibility for conducting one or more sessions of the class.

It has been found that socialized procedures are quite effective in this work. At the first session the class is divided into five committees. Each student committee works with a different teacher to prepare an effective plan for presenting the topic for which it is responsible. At the end of each course

¹ Miss Lorraine Rouget, teacher-counselor.

EDITOR'S NOTE

Davis High School, Mt. Vernon, N.Y., has a short, after-school course that offers training in leadership that is popular among students who aspire to office in the school's various organizations and activities. Dr. Spalding, principal of the school, recommends such a course for every high school on the basis of results he has observed.

the teacher in charge submits to the principal an evaluation of it, together with the papers prepared by the students evaluating the course.

During the past year four groups totaling about 130 students took the course. The response of most of these students was very favorable. The general organization has maintained a strong interest in the course and has recommended that all candidates for general organization offices should take it.

The course has shown its value in several ways. Students interested in becoming candidates for office seek admission to it and later use the fact that they have taken it as one of their qualifications for office. Student leaders take a more responsible attitude toward their work and are able to carry it on more effectively with less individual instruction and supervision from advisers. From the discussion of the leadership training classes a number of suggestions for school improvement have come which, through the action of the members, have been put into effect.

The course has proved its value in our school. Any school which takes its responsibility for training leaders seriously will do well to provide such instruction.



Bill Bolt, principal of the Spencer, Ia., High School, says that a principal, like a banker, has to think up a lot of nice ways to say "No." Sometimes a principal feels like the kill-joy father who used to say, "Go see what Willie is doing and tell him to quit!"—JOHN HAROLD in *Midland Schools*.



Critics of Education and Their Criticism: A Diagnosis

THE HUNTING SEASON seems to be perennially open; workers in the field of education are never safe from the critics who without benefit of red hunting caps or hunting licenses stalk the undefended pedagogue to his lair.

The educator usually fights back by using the same weapons as the critic. Why he does this, is not clear. He should take a lesson from his brothers who are hunted only when they are in season. The school man should fight with the weapons which are natural to him and which are near at hand.

Anyone who reads and analyzes the critical articles which are reproduced in professional journals, popular magazines, and newspapers, and who listens to criticisms offered him by patrons of the public schools, citizens at large, and well-meaning neighbors, cannot help but recognize that something is wrong. The most serious charge that we must face is that the schools foster an education that is aimless. This allegation is made either directly or indirectly by most critics.

They say that we do not know the purposes for which we are educating children and youth. They say that we do not teach enough of the three R's; that we do not prepare students for life; that we place students' immediate interests on a higher plane than we put society's ultimate needs; that students are undisciplined and heedless of authority; that the schools do not help students develop a philosophy of life; that teachers colleges do not know how to educate teachers; that teachers are unsuited for teaching because of temperament and background; that administrators are reeds bent

by every whimsical breeze that blows from teachers colleges. In short, we are teaching something to our students but we are not agreed on what we shall teach or why we shall teach it. We have not thought through our own philosophy of life so that we have a defensible philosophy of education. For this reason we do not know the specific purposes of education and, thus, cannot be expected to agree on what should be taught.

As one result of these criticisms many administrators attempt to improve their organizational systems and many teachers change their methods of teaching. The remedy, however, is not to be found in manipulating the environment of education. The remedy will not be found in the schools, but in society itself. When critics blame the schools for aimlessness and confusion, they are not attacking the schools; they are attacking society and in attacking society they are attacking themselves.

Education is part of the American culture. It does not determine the culture; it is indigenous to it. Teachers are part of American society; they do not create it. America and the world are confused today. As Americans we are confused. We are not sure of our place in the world. We read the newspapers and listen to news broadcasts with anxiety. We do not know for sure what our direction as a nation should be. We feel that we should exert world leadership, but we are not sure how to exert that leadership; we are not sure what international responsibilities we should assume. We could continue this catalog indefinitely into every phase of post World War II life.

This indefiniteness of the direction of

American culture and society has undoubtedly always obtained, but has been aggravated in our own time by America's growing importance on the international scene and the concomitant repercussions such development has on our homes and families. Some individuals will argue that we do not have one society or one culture, that our society is pluralistic. This does not alleviate the dilemma of America; it further complicates it.

American public education is society oriented. The articulate and influential theorists of the past and present have helped to make it so by asserting that the schools exist for the ultimate purpose of placing well-adjusted individuals in society. How can we expect to accomplish this when society itself does not offer us any clear definitions of the direction we must take?

Teachers and administrators are part of American society. As such they cannot be expected to exhibit any more self-direction than the society of which they are a part. They are caught up in the general confusion of twentieth-century living. They are not intellectually any more qualified to be master strategists or architects of a more stable social order than are the other intelligent citizens. Society has made of itself what it is, and teachers and administrators have merely been carried along as members.

The curriculum of our schools is part of our culture. It is not the product of the

culture nor the creator of the culture; it is merely a thread in the cultural pattern. It can be no better or no worse than that of which it is necessarily a part.

As long as the purpose of education is rooted in our society, and as long as our society is confused, just so long will education be confused. The critic of education is in the same position as the grasshopper on a wood chip in a raging river who criticizes another grasshopper on another wood chip in the same river for not being able to control his direction. Since neither seems to be in control, the remedy lies not in the grasshoppers, themselves, nor in their wood chips, but rather in doing something about the river.

What American society is groping for is the answer to the question, "Where are we going," and its natural corollary, "Why?" When America and the world see the answer, many of the problems of education's aimlessness will be solved. It does not seem likely, however, that such a revelation will occur in our time. Until such a day, we and our critics shall continue working toward what really is a common goal—the best for our children in a troubled world—but we shall continue to disagree on our definitions of "the best."

HARRY L. WELLBANK, Asst. Prof.
Dept. of Education
Loyola University
Chicago, Ill.



One Text, Several Levels

A text in such subjects as reading or geography should be on several different levels. The same story would be read by all pupils, but the vocabulary, sentence structure, length, and pictures in the text would vary.

I have talked to many administrators in all parts of the United States, and they seem to be in favor of such a text. The reading coordinator in the Pekin, Ill., system has been looking for such a text,

but to no avail. My experience as a secondary and elementary teacher leads me to believe that providing the same basal text with varying reading levels will greatly improve . . . learning. . . .

The book companies will provide this type of text only when enough teachers and administrators insist on it. Why don't you ask for such texts when the book salesman visits your school?—VINCENT T. CALLAHAN in *Illinois Education*.

Events & Opinion

Edited by THE STAFF

SCIENCE SCHOLARSHIPS: Secondary-school science teachers across the nation are eligible to apply for 50 fellowships to a special 6 weeks' summer program of study at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology which will extend from June 29 to August 7. The program, financed by Westinghouse Educational Foundation, is arranged to provide a review of fundamental subject matter in physics and chemistry, together with a survey of recent developments in several of the sciences. A series of informal meetings for discussion of the problems and methods of teaching science is also planned.

Registration for the program will be limited to the 50 science teachers who receive the Westinghouse awards. Application forms, which must be filled out before April 1, may be obtained from Prof. Francis W. Sears, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge 39, Mass.

THE FUND'S \$9,000,000: Thirteen studies and projects on the improvement of U. S. elementary, secondary, and college education, financed by grants from the Fund for the Advancement of Education (Ford Foundation) are explained in the first Annual Report of the Fund for 1951-52, copies of which recently were mailed to county and city superintendents of schools and other educational officials. The Report covers the period of April 3, 1951, to June 30, 1952, during which time the Fund approved grants totalling more than \$9,000,000 for the 13 studies and projects.

Of sums given to the Fund so far by the Ford Foundation, about \$7,500,000 had not been scheduled for use, at the end of the period covered by the Report. But "a flood of applications from educational institutions followed the announcement of the establishment of the Fund. To have met all requests received during the first year . . . would have required more than \$300,000,000." The Fund had to concentrate upon aiding certain important projects as adequately as possible.

Probably the most publicized activity financed by the Fund is the preinduction scholarships program at 12 colleges—an experiment in which chosen young men not more than sixteen and a half years old were allowed to enter college before high-school graduation for 2 years of liberal education before being drafted.

In addition to certain studies and projects in higher education, the Fund is financing the following: development of an integrated curriculum for

grades 11 through 14 at Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass.; study of admission with advanced standing, Kenyon College; development of enriched curriculum for able public-school students in the Portland, Ore., Public Schools; preparation of studies on problems of public schools by the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools; restudy and redevelopment of the program of secondary education in the Dearborn, Mich., Public Schools; and development of arrangements for better utilization of teachers, carried on by Central Michigan College of Education.

One of the college-level programs financed by the Fund, the "Arkansas project," is a state-wide program in which future public-school teachers would be given 4 years of undergraduate work in liberal or general education, followed by a year of carefully directed internship experience and study.

SCIENCE PRIZES: Some \$6,000 in awards to science students and science teachers in grades 7 through 12 are offered in the second annual program of science achievement awards of the Future Scientists of America Foundation. There are 104 awards for students, totalling \$5,000 in cash and U. S. Defense Bonds, and 20 awards totalling \$1,000 for teachers. Entries will be based upon student science projects of the current school year, which must be reported not later than May 31, 1953.

Purpose of the contest is to develop "more scientists for research, engineering, teaching, and technical work." The program is sponsored by the American Society for Metals and is conducted by the National Science Teachers of America. For information and free materials, write to Future Scientists of America Foundation, National Science Teachers Association, 1201 Sixteenth St. N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

MICROFILMING RECORDS: The Spokane, Wash., Public Schools are putting all of their official records on microfilm to save space and time, centralize them, and have them fireproof, says Geneva E. Foss in *Washington Education*. The records date back to the 1880's.

Two million microfilm pictures will be taken of as many documents—and of these, 750,000 had been handled recently. The original records had been overflowing rooms in various buildings, and it took time to locate a wanted item. To give you

an idea, two large rooms in different buildings were bulging with records which, on microfilm, now occupy three small, fire-resistant metal drawers of a cabinet. One of these records now can be located and viewed in a minute and a half.

Apparently such a project isn't one to enter upon lightly. A committee made a two-year study of problems and systems before the program was begun. Harold W. Colman, audio-visual director, who supervises the project, has received inquiries from school systems all over the country that are considering a similar plan. He believes that the only other school system in the West that microfilms its records is that of San Francisco. Mr. Colman says that you save about 99% of storage space when you use microfilm.

Volumes of *THE CLEARING HOUSE* are available on microfilm from University Microfilms, Ann Arbor, Mich. A bound volume of CH happens to take just about 100 cubic inches of space, while on microfilm the volume occupies something like one cubic inch of the space on a microfilm reel.

COLLEGE GUIDANCE: "College: Whether to Go—Where to Go" is the title of a 13-page reprint from the January 1953 issue of *Mademoiselle*, magazine for young women. One feature presents in summary-outline form the advantages of going to college, but also suggests how the girl who can't go to college may improve her situation. An article discusses the costs of going to college and states the costs for typical colleges in four expense-groups.

In "Where Do the Top Students Go?" girls who are bright students are advised to attend a college where a high per cent of the students are good scholars, and where it is socially acceptable to act intelligent and be studious. The article contains three tables giving the statistics on colleges of this nature, based upon a study by Robert H. Knapp and Joseph J. Greenbaum, which was financed by the Fund for the Advancement of Education. Another feature lists one hundred arts schools for the "genuinely gifted."

Copies of the reprint may be obtained for 10 cents each from *Mademoiselle* Magazine, 575 Madison Ave., New York 22, N.Y.

WORKSHOP IN EUROPE: The fourth European Workshop offered for graduate credit in the School of Education, New York University, is announced for July and August 1953, with the theme, "Contemporary Europe and Public Education."

The Workshop offers teachers and social workers the following study sessions—2½ weeks in London, 8 days in Heidelberg, 4 days in Paris, and 8 days of travel by chartered bus through Belgium, Germany, Switzerland, and France, at an estimated total cost of about \$950. In the countries visited, prominent leaders in government, social service, and

public education will be brought into the seminar. Such institutions as Unesco in Paris, public schools in Britain, and primary schools and gymnasia in Germany will be visited to give teachers first-hand information for teaching world affairs.

An account of a similar previous Workshop is given in C. O. Arndt's "Workshop on U. S. Educational Relations with Europe" in the April 1951 issue of *THE CLEARING HOUSE*. For further information write to Prof. C. O. Arndt, School of Education, New York University, Washington Square East, New York 3, N.Y.

TV PINCH-HITS: When the school janitors in Baltimore, Md., went on strike early in January, and most of the elementary schools and high schools had to be closed, the public schools organized a series of daily television lessons which were broadcast over stations WBAL-TV and WAAM-TV, reports Kenneth Campbell in the *New York Times*. Because the teachers found it easier to give instruction before a pupil audience, children living near the stations were gathered in the studio.

School officials said that a surprisingly large number of the pupils were following the broadcasts in their homes or the homes of friends. But CH readers may be pleased to know that many of the pupils said that they preferred to get their lessons direct from the teacher in school.

CRIME NEWS, j. g.: A Brooklyn teacher had collected \$60 in lunch money from her third-grade pupils and was busy conducting the day's lessons when an "unidentified youth" entered the classroom and told the teacher that the principal wanted to see her. On the stairway, says the *New York Herald-Tribune*, the youth put what seemed to be a gun against her back and demanded "the money." He refused to compromise by taking just the teacher's own money, and escaped with the \$60 pupils had paid in for their lunches.

Turning now to Detroit, we find in a United Press story that a public-school principal in that city offered a \$25 reward to any pupil who could "name the vandals who wrecked classrooms twice in the past month." Result: the pupils turned in "about 4,000 names."

TV & ATHLETICS: In Texas cities where high-school athletic events are televised, attendance at the games has dropped noticeably, says Rhea H. Williams in *Texas Outlook* (state educational journal). The average fee paid for television rights of a high-school contest in Texas is \$100, which doesn't compensate for the resulting loss in attendance and gate receipts. High schools that object to the losing deal, says Mr. Williams, are told that if they refuse, the stations will broadcast big-time athletic events during the hours of the local games.



Book Reviews



ROBERT G. FISK and EARL R. GABLER, *Review Editors*

Making the Most of School and Life, by CLARK ROBINSON. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1952. 491 pages, \$2.85.

To those skeptics who say the art of living gracefully and meaningfully cannot be taught, *Making the Most of School and Life*, by Clark Robinson, is certainly the answer.

This book is packed with information on every conceivable problem with which young people find themselves confronted in our complex world. Part I includes three chapters, "Growing Up by Learning Self-Direction," "The Effect of Choices on the Way You Grow Up," and "Growing Up in a Democracy." These not only make a splendid introduction to the subjects discussed in the remainder of the book, but give the youngster interesting food for thought which is certain to make him want more.

Parts II through VII contain material which every young person needs and wants. Some of these topics are: "Setting Your Goals," "Your Relations With Others," and "Living Well." Pertinent chapters

within these parts discuss "What You Are," "What You Want to Be," "The Home—Your Base of Operations," and "Living Safely."

Mr. Robinson provides very helpful techniques at the end of each chapter, with questions under the heading "Check Your Thinking." He includes suggestions for notebooks and gives several excellent quotations which apply to the material contained in the chapter.

Best of all, this is a book with an adult approach. The author takes it for granted that the student is old enough to discuss these problems on a serious, sensible level, and does not "talk down" to him. It is the sort of man-to-man discussion which makes sense and appeals to youth. The book will be interesting and helpful to parents and teachers, also. This book is by far the best text written in guidance in a long time and should meet with very great success.

LESTA H. JOUBERT

Dean of Girls

Marysville, Cal., High School

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Occupational Information for Counselors

By Harold J. Mahoney

A summary of expert opinion as to the content essential to the basic preparation of secondary school counselors. Kraft. viii plus 70 pages.



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In writing advertisers please mention CLEARING HOUSE

Better English—Grade 9, by MAX J. HERZBERG, FLORENCE C. GUILD, and J. N. HOOK. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1952. 442 pages, \$2.56.

Authors Herzberg, Guild, and Hook, like many other writers, have recognized the need for junior-high students to know more about getting along with others. In a most straightforward manner they have satisfied this need. The first eight chapters of their text deal directly with personality-selling; intermediate chapters present materials concerned with reading, thinking, speaking, discussing, selecting entertainment, and writing; the remainder of the text concerns itself with the organization of language.

Three fundamental steps in learning are recognized, and each topic in the text is so divided. Obtaining facts, application of these facts, and finally, answering questions about the facts in such a manner as to provide leeway for individual interpretation constitute the sub-topical organization of each topic. This three-part organization lends simplicity, understanding, and concreteness to a subject traditionally considered vague, complicated, and unreadable.

By far the most valuable features of the book are its use of cartoons for illustration to youngsters whose passion for comic books is more than well known, and the liberal and judicious use of color to make digestion a more pleasant experience.

New techniques of presentation, completely modern appeal, the wide range, and straightforward simplicity make this an excellent text.

HUGH B. INGRAM, JR.
Lawtey Junior High School
Lawtey, Fla.

Practice in English Usage, by HENRY I. CHRIST and J. C. TRESSLER. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1952. 177 pages, paper bound, \$1.

This workbook is physically attractive. There is plenty of space for the pupil to write his answers. The paper is good enough to take ink. The pages are easily detachable, though little Jimmy will break the continuity of the material when he tears a page out. So the answers you get from him today, for example, will likely serve as a defense against doing a part of tomorrow's assignment. This minor handicap will not keep him from getting an occasional chuckle out of the book. There are enough humorous drawings and grammatical wisecracks to bolster his flagging interest in language skills.

The book is instructionally sound. Clear directions precede the exercises, and there are plenty of diagnostic and mastery tests. The latter are pinned together but not attached to the binding. The sen-



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tences used in the exercises are neither better nor worse than you'll find elsewhere. In this matter, stupidity seems to be the keynote.

One point the authors emphasize in their preface is that they have cut out "outdated and inaccurate material." So you'll find no drills on the subjunctive, none on shall-will, or may-can, none on the compound-complex sentence, and none on diagraming. These are a couple of steady steps in the right direction. I'm not so sure the absence of a drill on using the dictionary is equally wise.

C. HOWARD SMITH

Clifford J. Scott High School
East Orange, N.J.

Practical Mathematics (4th ed.), by CLAUDE I. PALMER and SAMUEL F. BIBB. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1952. 769 pages, \$4.50.

Practical Mathematics is a valuable, down-to-the-minute, well-written compendium of a four-year course in secondary mathematics; it presents in integrated and functional manner the essentials of arithmetic, geometry, algebra, and trigonometry, and yet in such a manner that any or all units can be adapted as text or supplementary text for purposes of class presentation, refresher, or review.

Its emphases on practical pursuits encourage its use by adults in home-study and adult-education courses, and gear into practical needs, both immediate and long-term.

The authors are at once stimulating and satisfying. They stimulate with confidence and a plea: "Begin more than you can do and do it." They present concisely the essentials, explain and exemplify. Then they present applied problems and give their answers. They make mathematics both understandable and usable. The problem of drill is left to be a self-determining one: "Remember—so it is with mathematics—Staying on the right track is more important than speed."

In Part I, "Arithmetic," (161 pp.) we find the usual fundamental operations and their manipulations, and one chapter, "Short Cuts and Checks." The material is conveniently arranged and offers enough drill exercises for all class and optional work.

In Part II, "Geometry," (164 pp.) we find the amplification of familiar ideas and forms. We then apply our new appreciations and understandings.

We are asked to foster our reasoning; memorization is discounted. For those of a practical turn much is offered in such areas of interest as brick-work, lumber, steel square, screws and gears.

In Part III, "Algebra and Logarithms," (229 pp.) stress is placed on drill, formulas and their transformations, the practical applications of equations, graphical methods, and a fair amount of computation of logarithms. This chapter and the preceding one are especially recommended as supplementary texts in academic high-school courses.

In Part IV, "Trigonometry," (109 pp.) much stress is laid upon practical application. Tables are given to four decimal places.

Part V, "Tables," (23 pp.) offers a concise summary of formulas, useful numbers, tables of weights, gauge, specific gravities, square roots, logarithms and trigonometric functions, polygons and polyhedrons.

Practical Mathematics, for a bulky book, is surprisingly light in weight, inviting in format and type, good for a practical student eager to master the essentials, and satisfying both in its presentation and application as well as in its methods and devices.

RUTH O. LANA

Eagle Rock High School
Los Angeles, Cal.

Better Learning Through Current Materials (rev. ed.), edited by LUCIEN KINNEY and KATHARINE DRESDEN. Stanford, Cal.: Stanford University Press, 1952. 215 pages, clothbound \$3, plastic bound with durable cover, \$1.

"Applying the democratic process to the solving of significant problems is the kind of education America needs and wants." *Better Learning Through Current Materials* is packed with specific examples of effective techniques and procedures developed by a group of California teachers. Useful in any subject field of secondary education, *Better Learning* is invaluable for reference and inspiration to both teachers and pupils. Some of the topics considered in detail are: learning to solve life's problems; current materials in various classrooms, as enrichment, and as a basic resource; using the community; developing pupil leadership; effective classroom discussion; room display areas; and evaluation procedures.

Test data are here for those who want this kind of evidence. It is sufficient to encourage the incredulous and further proof for those who know from experience the effectiveness of this approach. However, such teaching is too far-reaching to be adequately evaluated by paper and pencil tests and limited observation. This continues to be an area for further experimentation.

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LESLIE J. BISHOP
Evanston Township High School
Evanston, Ill.

Education and American Civilization, by GEORGE S. COUNTS. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. 491 pages, \$3.75.

Professor George S. Counts' book, *Education and American Civilization*, deals with the role of education in the fight for realization of five "musts" which he states are essential to meet the on-rushing threat of totalitarianism, and in the preservation of the individual freedom of mankind.

It is Dr. Counts' contention that we live today on the threshold of a new era and in the shadow of a dying civilization from which we have a heritage of contending ideologies and deep-seated trouble which threaten the free people of the world.

The power of the United States today is so great, he states, "that what we do or fail to do will affect profoundly the course of history during the critical years ahead." We must, according to Dr. Counts, (1) establish a just and durable peace, (2) fashion at home a stable economy, (3) preserve the great tradition of political liberty, (4) extend the benefits of our democracy to all people, and (5) strive to improve the quality of living in America.

It is not Dr. Counts' contention that this may be accomplished by education alone, but it is obvious, he insists, "that it cannot be accomplished without the assistance which organized education can provide."

Dr. Counts points out that from early times we have identified education with the advance of civilization, and, as has been so amply demonstrated during the last quarter century, that education may be the handmaiden of freedom or tyranny.

He discusses our early American heritage and our emergence from an agrarian and mercantile civilization into a "strange and yet undefined" industrial world. We must hold fast, he believes, to all that is good in our heritage, but move forward in terms relating to the present and future.

The book should be of great interest and value to teachers and administrators who are struggling to sort out real values from the great mass of contending opinion confronting them today, and for

those concerned with building curriculums for the education of American citizenry. It should be of particular interest to those concerned with teacher education.

DOUGLAS A. FERRENDEN
Mansfield Public Schools
Mansfield, Ohio

Mathematics of Retail Merchandising, by BERNARD P. CORBMAN. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1952. 327 pages, \$3.50.

This is an excellent book for teaching the mathematics of retailing. It should give the merchandise manager, the buyer, and the assistant buyer the knowledge of arithmetic which they need for success. It would be a good book to have on hand at all times, as I believe every phase of retailing is covered which has to do with mathematics on these levels.

On the training level I can see where one might run into a little trouble if the trainees were not far enough advanced in the retailing profession. On the college level I believe it would be necessary for the student to be working or at least to have worked in a retail store before he attempts to understand the significance of the calculations.

However, I believe the author has done a good job in applying the mathematics to retailing and in getting as wide a coverage of people in the field as possible.

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I was very pleased to see that in the first four chapters the author used a realistic approach to the subject by first presenting the easiest and yet most fundamental aspect of retailing. The further one goes into this book the more deeply he becomes involved in the mathematics of retail theory. But that is as it should be, since it is the hardest to understand and the hardest to make work.

I was also pleased to note that in his bibliography the author did not give references to more retail arithmetic. Instead he referred to books which would supplement the beginning student's knowledge of retailing.

MILO A. LATTERELL
Coordinator of Distributive Education
Minneapolis Public Schools
Minneapolis, Minn.

PAMPHLETS RECEIVED

- About You* (Family Living Series), by MARJORIE C. COSGROVE and MARY I. JOSEY. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1952. 80 pages, 96 cents.
A Desert in Your Own Backyard? prepared by the National Wildlife Federation. Washington, D.C.: Servicing Division, The Federation. 14 pages.
Guides to a Curriculum for Modern Living, by FLORENCE B. STRATMEYER, with the assistance of

MARGARET G. MCKIM and MAYME SWEET. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. 60 pages, \$1.35.

Reading for Meaning, Proceedings of 34th Annual Education Conference held at University of Delaware, compiled by RUSSELL G. STAUFFER. Newark, Del.: Write to Daniel Ferry, Manager, University Bookstore, Univ. of Delaware, 1952. 77 pages.

Teaching of Natural Science in Secondary Schools, from Information Supplied by the Ministries of Education of 48 Countries. Published for Unesco and International Bureau of Education. New York: Columbia University Press. 216 pages, \$1.50.

"Three Types of Counseling," by CLYDE R. BAIRD. Published in Oct. 1952 and Jan. 1953 issues of *The Educational Leader* (State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kan.). Free copies of Oct. and Jan. issues available from Mailing Department of the College.

What is New in '52 for Guidance and Health? sponsored by Dept. of Education, University Extension Div., Office of Summer Session of the University of Wisconsin, and Wisc. Assn. of Educational and Vocational Guidance, Industrial and Educational Counselors Assn., State Dept. of Public Instruction, State Board of Vocational and Adult Education, and State Board of Health, 1952. 61 pages.

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A man takes his life into his own hands, literally and figuratively, when he pulls on his official shirt and walks out on the field of play. It's rough enough for an official to do a good job without coaches "working" him over.—*Norman Schachter*, p. 335.

Some classroom methods may be just what a particular teacher has been searching for; others would best be discarded by that teacher. The fact that individual differences exist among teachers as well as pupils must be accepted.—*Lenore M. Martin*, p. 343.

At the average high-school speech contest . . . the listeners are usually a judge, a chairman, a timekeeper, perhaps a parent or two, one's opponents, and occasionally a school-bus driver or a janitor who wants a warm place where he can sit and doze until he can go home.—*William S. Tacey*, p. 346.

Unless and until conclusive research shows a more effectual means of teaching grammar than diagrammatic visualization, those teachers who prefer diagramming should trust their own classroom experience . . . —*Don M. Wolfe*, p. 353.

"I like a middle-aged woman teacher," one student boldly stated. Another comment was, "I like a good-looking teacher . . ." A teacher is expected to be a respectable citizen of the community. As one student insisted, "He should not come to class with a hangover from the night before."—*Dorothy Fitzgerald*, p. 368.

The critic of education is in the same position as the grasshopper on a wood chip in a raging river who criticizes another grasshopper on another wood chip in the same river for not being able to control his direction.—*Harry L. Wellbank*, p. 373.

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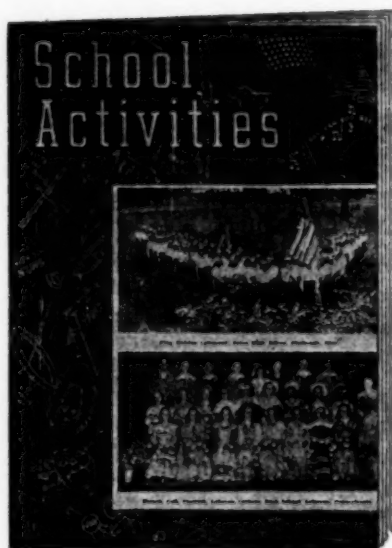
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